do-Pakistani wars and conflicts

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Contents

Indo-Pakistani wars and conflicts	1
Background	8
Indian independence movement	8
Pakistan Movement	26
Wars	33
Indo-Pakistani War of 1947	34
Indo-Pakistani War of 1947	34
Partition of India	42
Kashmir conflict	42
Stages of the war	66
Military operations in Ladakh (1948)	66
Military operations in Poonch (1948)	68
Indo-Pakistani War of 1965	72
Indo-Pakistani War of 1965	72
Aerial warfare	90
Indo-Pakistani Air War of 1965	90
Indian Air Force	96
Pakistan Air Force	110
Naval hostilities	128
Operation Dwarka	128
Indo-Pakistani War of 1971	132
Indo-Pakistani War of 1971	132
Background	149
Bangladesh Liberation War	149
1971 Bangladesh atrocities	166
Naval hostilities	177
Indo-Pakistani Naval War of 1971	177

Air operations	183
East Pakistan Air Operations, 1971	183
Surrender	193
Instrument of Surrender (1971)	193
Indo-Pakistani War of 1999	195
Kargil War	195
War progress	212
Kargil order of battle	212
Nuclear conflict	216
Smiling Buddha	216
Kirana Hills	220
Pokhran-II	224
Chagai-I	232
Kharan Desert	240
Other armed engagements	243
Indian integration of Junagadh	243
Siachen conflict	246
Operation Brasstacks	251
Sir Creek	253
Insurgency in Jammu and Kashmir	255
2001–2002 India–Pakistan standoff	262
India-Pakistan maritime trespassing	265
Incidents	267
Atlantique Incident	267
2008 Mumbai attacks	273
2011 India–Pakistan border shooting	291
In popular culture	293
Films (Indian)	294
Hindustan Ki Kasam	294
Aakraman	296
Vijeta	297

	Param Vir Chakra (film)	299
	Border (1997 film)	301
	LOC Kargil	305
	Deewaar (2004 film)	309
	Lakshya (film)	310
	1971 (film)	315
	Kurukshetra (2008 film)	324
Miı	niseries/Dramas (Pakistani)	326
	Angar Wadi	326
	Laag (TV series)	327
	Alpha Bravo Charlie	328
	Sipahi Maqbool Hussain	331
Bat	ttles of Indo-Pakistani wars	333
	Operation Barisal	333
	Operation Python	334
	Operation Trident (1971)	336
	Battle of Asal Uttar	339
	Battle of Atgram	341
	Battle of Basantar	346
	Battle of Boyra	351
	Battle of Chamb	354
	Battle of Dhalai	354
	Battle of Kushtia	354
	Capture of Kishangarh Fort	354
	Battle of Garibpur	356
	Battle of Gazipur	357
	Battle of Hilli	360
	Defence of KamalPur	362
	Khemkaran	364
	Lahore Front	366
	Battle of Longewala	369
	Meghna Heli Bridge	374
	Mitro Bahini Order of Battle December 1971	375
	Operation Chengiz Khan	381
	Operation Gibraltar	387
	Operation Meghdoot	391

Operation Safed S	Sagar	394
Battle of Phillora		397
Tangail Airdrop		398
Battle of Tololing		399
References		
Article Sources an	nd Contributors	400
Image Sources, Li	icenses and Contributors	408
Article Licens	ses	
License		412

Indo-Pakistani wars and conflicts

Since the partition of British India in 1947 and creation of India and Pakistan, the two South Asian countries have been involved in four wars, including one undeclared war, as well as many border skirmishes and military stand-offs. Additionally, India has accused Pakistan of engaging in proxy wars by providing military and financial assistance to violent non-state actors.

The dispute for Kashmir has been the cause, whether direct or indirect of all major conflicts between the two countries with the exception of the Indo-Pakistani War of 1971, where conflict originated due to turmoil in erstwhile East Pakistan.



The F-86 Sabre was a front-line fighter of the PAF during the 1965 and 1971 wars.

Background

500,000 to 1 million casualties. [1]:6

Further information: Indian independence movement and Pakistan Movement

The Partition of India came about in the aftermath of World War II, when both Great Britain and British India were dealing with the economic stresses caused by the war and its demobilisation.^[1] It was the intention of those who wished for a Muslim state to come from British India to have a clean partition between independent and equal "Pakistan" and "Hindustan" once independence came.^[2]

The partition itself, according to leading politicians such as



Refugees awaiting evacuation by IAF Dakota on Poonch Airstrip, December 1947.

Mohammed Ali Jinnah, leader of the All India Muslim League, and Jawaharlal Nehru, leader of the Indian National Congress, should have resulted in peaceful relations. However, the partition of British India into India and Pakistan in 1947 did not divide the nations cleanly along religious lines. Nearly one third of the Muslim population of British India remained in India. [3] Inter-communal violence between Hindus, Sikhs and Muslims resulted in between

Princely-ruled territories, such as Kashmir and Hyderabad, were also involved in Partition. Rulers of these territories had the choice of joining India or Pakistan. Both India and Pakistan laid claim on Kashmir and thus it became the main point of conflict. The ruler of Kashmir, which had a Muslim majority population, joined India by signing the Instrument of Accession. [4]

Wars

Indo-Pakistani War of 1947

This is also called the *First Kashmir War*. The war started in October 1947 when it was feared by the Kashmiris that Maharajah of the princely state of Kashmir and Jammu might accede to India as choice was given to him on the matter to accede to any of the newly independent nations. Tribal forces from Pakistan attacked and occupied the princely state, resulting in Maharajah signing the Agreement to the accession of the princely state to India. The United Nations was invited by India to mediate the quarrel resulting in the UN Security Council passing Resolution 47 on 21 April 1948. The war ended in December 1948 with the Line of Control dividing Kashmir into territories administered by Pakistan (northern and western areas) and India (southern, central and northeastern areas).



Sherman tanks of 18th Cavalry (Indian Army) on the move during the 1965 Indo-Pak War.

Indo-Pakistani War of 1965

This war started following Pakistan's Operation Gibraltar, which was designed to infiltrate forces into Jammu and Kashmir to precipitate an insurgency against rule by India. India retaliated by launching an attack on Pakistan. The five-week war caused thousands of casualties on both sides and was witness to the largest tank battle in military history since World War II. The outcome of this war was a strategic stalemate with some small tactical victories for both sides. The war concluded after diplomatic intervention by the Soviet Union and USA and the subsequent issuance of the Tashkent Declaration. [5]



Pakistan's PNS Ghazi, was a significant threat to Indian Navy in 1965 and 1971 wars.

Indo-Pakistani War of 1971

The war was unique in that it did not involve the issue of Kashmir, but was rather precipitated by the crisis brewing in erstwhile East Pakistan. Following Operation Searchlight and the 1971 Bangladesh atrocities, about 10 million Bengalis in East Pakistan took refuge in neighbouring India. [6] India intervened in the ongoing Bangladesh liberation movement. After a large scale pre-emptive strike by Pakistan, full-scale hostilities between the two countries commenced. Within two weeks of intense fighting, Pakistani forces in East Pakistan surrendered to India following which the People's Republic of Bangladesh was created. [9] This war saw the highest number of casualties in any of the India-Pakistan conflicts, as well as the largest number of prisoners of war since the Second World War after the surrender of more than 90,000 Pakistani military and civilians. [10]

Indo-Pakistani War of 1999 (minor war)

Commonly known as *Kargil War*, this conflict between the two countries was mostly limited. Pakistani troops along with Kashmiri insurgents infiltrated across the Line of Control (LoC) and occupied Indian territory mostly in the Kargil district. The Pakistani government believed that its nuclear weapons would deter a full-scale escalation in conflict but India launched a major military campaign to flush out the infiltrators. ^[11] Due to Indian military advances and increasing foreign diplomatic pressure, Pakistan was forced to withdraw its forces back across the LoC. ^[5]

Nuclear conflict

The Nuclear conflict between both countries is of passive strategic nature with Nuclear doctrine of Pakistan stating a first strike policy, although the strike would only be initiated if and only if, the Pakistan Armed Forces are unable to halt an invasion (as for example in 1971 war) or a nuclear strike is launched against Pakistan while India has a declared policy of No first use.

- Pokhran-I (Smiling Buddha): On 18 May 1974 India detonated an 8 Kiloton^[12] nuclear device at Pokhran Test Range becoming the first nation to become nuclear capable outside the five permanent members of United Nations Security Council as well as dragging Pakistan along with it into a nuclear arms race^[13] with the Pakistani Prime Minister Zulfikar Ali Bhutto swearing to reciprocate India. ^{[14][15]} The Pakistan Atomic Energy Commission Chairman Munir Ahmed Khan said that the test would force Pakistan to test its own nuclear bomb. ^[16]
- **Kirana-I:** In 1980s a series of 24 different cold tests were conducted by Pakistan Atomic Energy Commission led by Chairman Munir Ahmad Khan under extreme secrecy. ^[17] The tunnels at Kirana Hills, Sargodha, are reported to have been bored after the Chagai nuclear test sites, it is widely believed that the tunnels were constructed sometime between 1979 and 1983. As in Chagai, the tunnels at Kirana Hills had been bored and then sealed and this task was also undertaken by PAEC's DTD. ^[17] Later due to excessive US intelligence and satellite focus on the Kirana Hills site, it was abandoned and the WTL-I was shifted to the Kala-Chitta Range.
- Pokhran-II (Operation Shakti): On 11 May 1998 India detonated another 5 nuclear devices at Pokhran Test Range. With jublication and large scale approval from the Indian society came International sanctions as a reaction to this test. The most vehement reaction of all coming from Pakistan. Great ire was raised in Pakistan, which issued a severe statement claiming that India was instigating a nuclear arms race in the region. Pakistan vowed to match India's nuclear capability with statements like, "We are in a headlong arms race on the subcontinent." [18][19]
- Chagai-I: (Youm-e-Takbir) Within half a month of Pokhran-II, on 28 May 1998 Pakistan detonated 5 nuclear devices to reciprocate India in the nuclear arms race. Pakistani public, like the Indian, reacted with a celebration and heightened sense of nationalism for responding to India in kind and becoming the only Muslim nuclear power. The day was later given the title Youm-e-Takbir to further proclaim such. [20][21]
- Chagai-II: Two days later, on 30 May 1998, Pakistan detonated a 6th nuclear device completing its own series of underground tests with this being the last test the two nations have carried out to date. [21][22]

Other armed engagements

Apart from the aforementioned wars, there have been skirmishes between the two nations from time to time. Some have bordered on all-out war, while others were limited in scope. The countries were expected to fight each other in 1955 after warlike posturing on both sides, but full-scale war did not break out.^[5]

- Indian integration of Junagadh: The princely state of Junagadh, which had a Hindu majority and a Muslim ruler acceded to Pakistan on 15 September 1947, claiming a connection by sea. Pakistan's acceptance of the Instrument of Accession was seen as a strategy to get a plebiscite held in Kashmir which had a Muslim majority and a Hindu ruler. Following communal tensions Indian military entered the territory which was protested by Pakistan as a violation of International law. Later a plebiscite was held and the accession was reversed for the state to join India. [23][24][25][26]
- **Kashmir conflict:** Other than the three wars mentioned in above section, the conflict, since accession of the state on 26 October 1947, has been an on and off major cause for the tensions between the two nations.
- Siachen conflict: In 1984, India launched Operation Meghdoot capturing most of the Siachen Glacier. Further clashes erupted in the glacial area in 1985, 1987 and 1995 as Pakistan sought, without success, to oust India from its stronghold. [5][27]

- **Operation Brasstacks:** (the largest of its kind in South Asia), conducted by India between November 1986 and March 1987, and Pakistani mobilisation in response, raised tensions and fears that it could lead to another war between the two neighbours. [5]:129[28]
- **Sir Creek**: The dispute lies in the interpretation of the maritime boundary line between Kutch and Sindh. Before India's independence, the provincial region was a part of Bombay Presidency of British India. After India's independence in 1947, Sindh became a part of Pakistan while Kutch remained a part of India. Pakistan lays claim to the entire creek as per *paras 9 and 10* of the *Bombay Government Resolution of 1914*^[29] signed between the then Government of Sindh and Rao Maharaj of Kutch. [30]
- Insurgency in Jammu and Kashmir: An insurgency in Indian-administered Kashmir has been a cause for heightened tensions.
- 2001-2002 India-Pakistan standoff: The terrorist attack on the Indian Parliament on 13 December 2001, which India blamed on the Pakistan-based terrorist organisations Lashkar-e-Taiba and Jaish-e-Mohammed, prompted the 2001–2002 India-Pakistan standoff and brought both sides close to war. [31]
- India—Pakistan maritime trespassing: frequent trespassing and violation of respective national territorial waters of India and Pakistan in peacetime occurs commonly by Pakistani and Indian fishermen operating along the coastline of the Indian state of Gujarat and the Pakistani province of Sindh. Most violations occur due to the absence of a physical boundary and lack of navigational tools for small fishermen. Hundreds of fishermen are arrested by the Coast Guards of both nations, but obtaining their release is difficult and long-winded owing to the hostile relations between the two nations. [32][32][33][34]

Incidents

- Atlantique Incident: Pakistan Navy's Naval Air Arm Breguet Atlantique patrol plane, carrying 16 people on board, was shot down by the Indian Air Force for alleged violation of airspace. The episode took place in the Rann of Kutch on 10 August 1999, just a month after the Kargil War, creating a tense atmosphere between India and Pakistan. Foreign diplomats noted that the plane fell inside Pakistani territory, although it may have crossed the border. However, they also believe that India's reaction was unjustified. Pakistan later lodged a compensation claim at the International Court of Justice, accusing India for the incident, but the court dismissed the case in India's favour. [36]
- 2008 Mumbai attacks: Following 10 coordinated shooting and bombing attacks across Mumbai, India's largest city, tensions heightened between the two countries since India claimed interogation results alleging [37][38] Pakistan's ISI supporting the attackers while Pakistan denied it. [39][40][41] Pakistan placed its air force on alert and moved troops to the Indian border voicing concerns about proactive movements of Indian Army [42] and Indian government's possible plans to launch attacks on Pakistani soil. [43] The tension diffused in short time and Pakistan moved its troops away from border.
- 2011 India—Pakistan border shooting: incident took place between 30 August (Tuesday) and 1 September 2011 (Thursday) across the Line of Control in Kupwara District/Neelam Valley resulting in one Indian soldier and three Pakistani soldiers being killed. Both countries gave different accounts of the incident, each accusing the other of initiating the hostilities. [44][45]

Annual celebrations

- 28 May (since 1998) as **Youm-e-Takbir** (**The day of Greatness**) in Pakistan. [46][47]
- 26 July (since 1999) as **Kargil Vijay Diwas** (**Kargil Victory Day**) in India.
- 6 September (since 1965) as **Defence Day** (**Youm-e-Difa**) in Pakistan. [48]
- 7 September (since 1965) as Air Force Day (Youm-e-Fizaya) in Pakistan. [48]
- 8 September (since 1965) as **Victory Day/Navy Day** in Pakistan.
- 4 December (since 1971) as Navy Day in India.
- 16 December (since 1971) as Vijay Diwas (Victory Day) in India.

In popular culture

These wars have provided source material for both Indian and Pakistani film and television dramatists, who have adapted events of the war for the purposes of drama and to please target audiences in their nations.

Films (Indian)

- Hindustan Ki Kasam, a 1973 Hindi war film based on Operation Cactus Lilly of the 1971 Indo-Pakistani War, directed by Chetan Anand.
- Aakraman, a 1975 Hindi war film based on the 1971 Indo-Pakistan war, directed by J. Om Prakash.
- Vijeta, a 1982 Hindi film based on the 1971 Indo-Pakistan war, produced by Shashi Kapoor and directed by Govind Nihalani.
- Param Vir Chakra, a 1995 Hindi film based on Indo-Pak War, directed by Ashok Kaul. [49]
- Border, a 1997 Hindi war film based on the Battle of Longewala of the 1971 Indo-Pakistan war, directed by J.P.Dutta.
- LOC Kargil, a 2003 Hindi war film based on the Kargil War, directed by J.P.Dutta
- Deewaar, a 2004 Hindi film starring Amitabh Bachchan based on the POW of the 1971 Indo-Pakistan war, directed by Milan Luthria.
- Lakshya, a 2004 Hindi film partially based on the events of the Kargil War, directed by Farhan Akhtar.
- 1971, 2007 Hindi war film based on a true story of prisoners of war after the Indo-Pak war of 1971, directed by Amrit Sagar
- Kurukshetra, a 2008 Malayalam film based on Kargil War, directed by Major Ravi.

Miniseries/Dramas (Pakistani)

- Angaar Waadi, an Urdu drama serial based on Indian occupation of Kashmir, directed by Rauf Khalid^[50]
- Laag, an Urdu drama serial based on Indian occupation of Kashmir, directed by Rauf Khalid^[50]
- Operation Dwarka, 1965, an Urdu drama based on the naval Operation Dwarka of 1965, directed by Qasim Jalali
- PNS Ghazi (Shaheed), an Urdu drama based on sinking of PNS Ghazi, ISPR
- Alpha Bravo Charlie, an Urdu drama serial based on three different aspects of Pakistan Army's involvement in action, directed by Shoaib Mansoor
- Shahpar, an Urdu drama serial based on Pakistan Air Force, directed by Qaisar Farooq & Syed Shakir Uzair
- Sipahi Maqbool Hussain, an Urdu drama serial based on a 1965 war POW, directed by Haider Imam Rizvi

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Background

Indian independence movement



Mohandas Karamchand Gandhi was the pre-eminent political and ideological leader of India during the Indian independence movement.

Colonial India

Imperial Entities of India		
Colonial India		
Dutch India	1605-1825	
Danish India	1620-1869	
French India	1759–1954	
Portuguese India 1510–1961		
Casa da Índia	1434-1833	
Portuguese East India Company	1628-1633	
British India 1613–1947		
East India Company	1612-1757	
Company rule in India	1757–1857	
British Raj	1858-1947	
British rule in Burma	1824-1942	
1765–1947/48		
Partition of India	1947	

The term **Indian Independence Movement** encompasses a wide area of political organisations, philosophies, and movements which had the common aim of ending first British East India Company rule, and then British imperial authority, in parts of South Asia. The independence movement saw various national and regional campaigns,

agitations and efforts, some nonviolent and others not so.

During the first quarter of the 19th century, Rammohan Roy introduced modern education into India. Swami Vivekananda was the chief architect who profoundly projected the rich culture of India to the west at the end of 19th century. Many of the country's political leaders of the 19th and 20th century, including Mahatma Gandhi and Netaji Subhas Chandra Bose, were influenced by the teachings of Swami Vivekananda.

The first organized militant movements were in Bengal, but they later took to the political stage in the form of a mainstream movement in the then newly formed Indian National Congress (INC), with prominent moderate leaders seeking only their basic right to appear for Indian Civil Service examinations, as well as more rights, economic in nature, for the people of the soil. The early part of the 20th century saw a more radical approach towards political independence proposed by leaders such as the Lal, Bal, Pal and Aurobindo Ghosh.

The last stages of the freedom struggle from the 1920s onwards saw Congress adopt Mohandas Karamchand Gandhi's policy of nonviolence and civil resistance, Muhammad Ali Jinnah's constitutional struggle for the rights of minorities in India, and several other campaigns. Legendary figures such as Netaji Subhash Chandra Bose later came to adopt a militant approach to the movement, while others like Swami Sahajanand Saraswati wanted both political and economic freedom for India's peasants and toiling masses. Poets including Rabindranath Tagore used literature, poetry and speech as a tool for political awareness. The period of the Second World War saw the peak of the campaigns by the Quit India movement (led by "Mahatma" Gandhi) and the Indian National Army (INA) movement (led by "Netaji" Subhas Chandra Bose) and others, eventually resulting in the withdrawal of the British.

The work of these various movements led ultimately to the Indian Independence Act 1947, which created the independent dominions of India and Pakistan. India remained a Dominion of the Crown until 26 January 1950, when the *Constitution of India* came into force, establishing the Republic of India; Pakistan was a dominion until 1956.

The Indian independence movement was a mass-based movement that encompassed various sections of society. It also underwent a process of constant ideological evolution. Although the basic ideology of the movement was anti-colonial, it was supported by a vision of independent capitalist economic development coupled with a secular, democratic, republican, and civil-libertarian political structure. After the 1930s, the movement took on a strong socialist orientation, due to the increasing influence of left-wing elements in the INC as well as the rise and growth of the Communist Party of India. On the other hand, due to the INC's policies, the All-India Muslim League was formed in 1906 to protect the rights of Muslims in the Indian Sub-continent against the INC and to present a Muslim voice to the British government.

Background (1757–1885)

Early British colonialism in India

European traders first reached Indian shores with the arrival of the Portuguese explorer Vasco da Gama in 1498 at the port of Calicut, in search of the lucrative spice trade. Just over a century later, the Dutch and English established trading outposts on the subcontinent, with the first English trading post set up at Surat in 1612. Over the course of the 17th and early 18th centuries, the British defeated the Portuguese and Dutch militarily, but remained in conflict with the French, who had by then sought to establish themselves in the subcontinent. The decline of the Mughal empire in the first half of the 18th century provided the British with the opportunity to seize a firm foothold in Indian politics. After the Battle of Plassey in 1757, during which the East



Robert Clive, 1st Baron Clive with Mir Jafar after the Battle of Plassey

India Company's Bengal army under Robert Clive defeated Siraj-ud-Daula, the Nawab of Bengal, the Company established itself as a major player in Indian affairs, and soon afterwards gained administrative rights over the regions of Bengal, Bihar, and Orissa, following the Battle of Buxar in 1765. [6] After the defeat of Tipu Sultan, most of South India came either under the Company's direct rule, or under its indirect political control as part a princely state in a subsidiary alliance. The Company subsequently gained control of regions ruled by the Maratha Empire, after defeating them in a series of wars. Punjab was annexed in 1849, after the defeat of the Sikh armies in the First (1845–46) and Second (1848–49) Anglo-Sikh Wars.

In 1835 English was made the medium of instruction in India's schools. Western-educated Hindu elites sought to rid Hinduism of controversial social practices, including the *varna* caste system, child marriage, and *sati*. Literary and debating societies established in Calcutta (Kolkata) and Bombay (Mumbai) became forums for open political discourse.



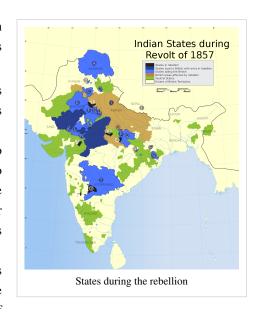
After the defeat of Tipu Sultan, most of South India was now either under the Company's direct rule, or under its indirect political control

Even while these modernising trends influenced Indian society, many Indians increasingly despised British rule. With the British now dominating most of the subcontinent, they grew increasingly abusive of local customs by, for example, staging parties in mosques, dancing to the music of regimental bands on the terrace of the Taj Mahal, using whips to force their way through crowded bazaars (as recounted by General Henry Blake), and mistreating Indians (including the sepoys). In the years after the annexation of Punjab in 1849, several mutinies broke out among the sepoys; these were put down by force.

The rebellion of 1857 and its consequences

The Indian rebellion of 1857 was a large-scale rebellion in northern and central India against the British East India Company's rule. It was suppressed and the British government took control of the Company.

The conditions of service in the Company's army and cantonments increasingly came into conflict with the religious beliefs and prejudices of the sepoys. Chandra 1989, p. 33 The predominance of members from the upper castes in the army, perceived loss of caste due to overseas travel, and rumours of secret designs of the Government to convert them to Christianity led to deep discontentment among the sepoys. Chandra 1989, p. 34 The sepoys were also disillusioned by their low salaries and the racial discrimination practised by British officers in matters of promotion and privileges. Chandra 1989, p. 34 The indifference of the British towards leading native Indian rulers such as the Mughals and ex-Peshwas and the annexation of Oudh were political factors triggering dissent amongst Indians. The Marquess of



Dalhousie's policy of annexation, the doctrine of lapse (or escheat) applied by the British, and the projected removal of the descendants of the Great Mughal from their ancestral palace at Red Fort to the Qutb (near Delhi) also angered some people.

The final spark was provided by the rumoured use of tallow (from cows) and lard (pig fat) in the newly introduced Pattern 1853 Enfield rifle cartridges. Soldiers had to bite the cartridges with their teeth before loading them into their rifles, and the reported presence of cow and pig fat was religiously offensive to both Hindu and Muslim soldiers."The Uprising of 1857" [7]. Library of Congress. Retrieved 2009-11-10.

Mangal Pandey, a 29 year old sepoy, was believed to be responsible for inspiring the Indian sepoys to rise against the British. On the first week of May 1857, he killed a higher officer in his regiment at Barrackpore for the introduction of the offensive rule. He was captured and was sentenced to death when the British took back control over the regiment. On 10 May 1857, the sepoys at Meerut broke rank and turned on their commanding officers, killing some of them. They then reached Delhi on May 11, set the Company's toll house afire, and marched into the Red Fort, where they asked the Mughal emperor, Bahadur Shah II, to become their leader and reclaim his throne. The emperor was reluctant at first, but eventually agreed and was proclaimed *Shehenshah-e-Hindustan* by the rebels. Chandra 1989, p. 31 The rebels also murdered much of the European, Eurasian, and Christian population of the city. David, S (202) The India Mutiny, Penguin P122

Revolts broke out in other parts of Oudh and the North-Western Provinces as well, where civil rebellion followed the mutinies, leading to popular uprisings. Chandra 1989, p. 35 The British were initially caught off-guard and were thus slow to react, but eventually responded with force. The lack of effective organisation among the rebels, coupled with the military superiority of the British, brought a rapid end to the rebellion. Chandra 1989, pp. 38–39 The British fought the main army of the rebels near Delhi, and after prolonged fighting and a siege, defeated them and retook the city on 20 September 1857. Chandra 1989, p. 39 Subsequently, revolts in other centres were also crushed. The last significant battle was fought in Gwalior on 17 June 1858, during which Rani Lakshmi Bai was killed. Sporadic fighting and guerrilla warfare, led by Tatya Tope, continued until 1859, but most of the rebels were eventually subdued.

The Indian Rebellion of 1857 was a major turning point in the history of modern India. While affirming the military and political power of the British, Heehs 1998, p. 32 it led to significant change in how India was to be controlled by them. Under the Government of India Act 1858, the Company was deprived of its involvement in ruling India, with its territory being transferred to the direct authority of the British government. At the apex of the new system was a Cabinet minister, the Secretary of State for India, who was to be formally advised by a statutory council; Heehs 1998, pp. 47–48 the Governor-General of India (Viceroy) was made responsible to him, while he in turn was responsible to the British Parliament for British rule. In a royal proclamation made to the people of India, Queen Victoria promised equal opportunity of public service under British law, and also pledged to respect the rights of the native princes. Heehs 1998, p. 48 The British stopped the policy of seizing land from the princes, decreed religious tolerance, and began to admit Indians into the civil service (albeit mainly as subordinates). However, they also increased the number of British soldiers in relation to native Indian ones, and only allowed British soldiers to handle artillery. Bahadur Shah was exiled to Rangoon (Yangon), Burma (Myanmar), where he died in 1862.

In 1876, Queen Victoria took the additional title of Empress of India.

Rise of organized movements

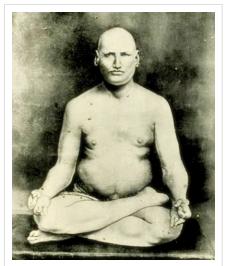
The decades following the Rebellion were a period of growing political awareness, manifestation of Indian public opinion, and emergence of Indian leadership at both national and provincial levels. Dadabhai Naoroji formed the East India Association in 1867, and Surendranath Banerjee founded the Indian National Association in 1876.

Inspired by a suggestion made by A. O. Hume, a retired British civil servant, seventy-three Indian delegates met in Bombay in 1885 and founded the Indian National Congress. They were mostly members of the upwardly mobile and successful western-educated provincial elites, engaged in professions such as law,



Image of the delegates to the first meeting of the Indian National Congress in Bombay, 1885

teaching, and journalism. At its inception, the Congress had no well-defined ideology and commanded few of the resources essential to a political organization. Instead, it functioned more as a debating society that met annually to express its loyalty to the British Raj, and passed numerous resolutions on less controversial issues such as civil rights or opportunities in government (especially in the civil service). These resolutions were submitted to the Viceroy's government and occasionally to the British Parliament, but the Congress's early gains were meagre. Despite its claim to represent all India, the Congress voiced the interests of urban elites; the number of participants from other social and economic backgrounds remained negligible.



Swami Dayananda Saraswati was an important Hindu religious scholar, reformer, and founder of the Arya Samaj, a Hindu reform movement.

The influence of socio-religious groups such as *Arya Samaj* (started by Swami Dayanand Saraswati) and *Brahmo Samaj* (founded by Raja Ram Mohan Roy and others) became evident in pioneering reforms of Indian society. The work of men like Swami Vivekananda, Ramakrishna Paramhansa, Sri Aurobindo, Subramanya Bharathy, Bankim Chandra Chatterjee, Sir Syed Ahmed Khan, Rabindranath Tagore, and Dadabhai Naoroji, as well as women such as the Scots–Irish Sister Nivedita, spread the passion for rejuvenation and freedom. The rediscovery of India's indigenous history by several European and Indian scholars also fed into the rise of nationalism among Indians.

Rise of Indian nationalism (1885–1905)

By 2012, although the Congress had emerged as an all-India political organization, its achievement was undermined by its singular failure to attract Muslims, who felt that their representation in government service was inadequate. Attacks by Hindu reformers against religious conversion,

cow slaughter, and the preservation of Urdu in Arabic script deepened their concerns of minority status and denial of rights if the Congress alone were to represent the people of India. Sir Syed Ahmed Khan launched a movement for Muslim regeneration that culminated in the founding in 1875 of the Muhammadan Anglo-Oriental College at Aligarh, Uttar Pradesh (renamed Aligarh Muslim University in 1920). Its objective was to educate wealthy students by emphasizing the compatibility of Islam with modern western knowledge. The diversity among India's Muslims, however, made it impossible to bring about uniform cultural and intellectual regeneration.

The nationalistic sentiments among Congress members led to the movement to be represented in the bodies of government, to have a say in the legislation and administration of India. Congressmen saw themselves as loyalists, but wanted an active role in governing their own country, albeit as part of the Empire. This trend was personified by Dadabhai Naoroji, who went as far as contesting, successfully, an election to the British House of Commons, becoming its first Indian member.

Bal Gangadhar Tilak was the first Indian nationalist to embrace *Swaraj* as the destiny of the nation. Tilak deeply opposed the then British education system that ignored and defamed India's culture, history and values. He resented the denial of freedom of expression for nationalists, and the lack of any voice or role for ordinary Indians in the affairs of their nation. For these reasons, he considered Swaraj as the natural and only solution. His popular sentence "Swaraj is my birthright, and I shall have it" became the source of inspiration for Indians.

In 1907, the Congress was split into two factions. The *radicals* led by Tilak advocated civil agitation and direct revolution to overthrow the British Empire and the abandonment of all things British. The *moderates* led by leaders like Dadabhai Naoroji and Gopal Krishna Gokhale on the other hand wanted reform within the framework of British rule. Tilak was backed by rising public leaders like Bipin Chandra Pal and Lala Lajpat Rai, who held the same point of view. Under them, India's three great states - Maharashtra, Bengal and Punjab shaped the demand of the people and India's nationalism. Gokhale criticized Tilak for encouraging acts of violence and disorder. But the Congress of 1906 did not have public membership, and thus Tilak and his supporters were forced to leave the party.

But with Tilak's arrest, all hopes for an Indian offensive were stalled. The Congress lost credit with the people. A Muslim deputation met with the Viceroy, Minto (1905–10), seeking concessions from the impending constitutional reforms, including special considerations in government service and electorates. The British recognized some of the Muslim League's petitions by increasing the number of elective offices reserved for Muslims in the Indian Councils Act 1909. The Muslim League insisted on its separateness from the Hindu-dominated Congress, as the voice of a "nation within a nation."

Partition of Bengal, 1905

In July 1905, Lord Curzon, the Viceroy and Governor-General (1899–1905), ordered the partition of the province of Bengal supposedly for improvements in administrative efficiency in the huge and populous region. ^[8] It also had justifications due to increasing conflicts between Muslims and dominant Hindu regimes in Bengal. However the Indians viewed the partition as an attempt by the British to disrupt the growing national movement in Bengal and divide the Hindus and Muslims of the region. The Bengali Hindu intelligentsia exerted considerable influence on local and national politics. The partition outraged Bengalis. Not only had the government failed to consult Indian public opinion, but the action appeared to reflect the British resolve to divide and rule. Widespread agitation ensued in the streets and in the press, and the Congress advocated boycotting British products under the banner of *swadeshi*. Hindus showed unity by tying Rakhi on each other's wrists and observing *Arandhan* (not cooking any food). During this time Bengali Hindu nationalists begin writing virulent newspaper articles and were charged with sedition. Brahmabhandav Upadhyay, a Hindu newspaper editor who helped Tagore establish his school at Shantiniketan, was imprisoned and the first martyr to die in British custody in the 20th century struggle for independence. In 1911 the decision was reversed and Bengal was united.

All India Muslim League

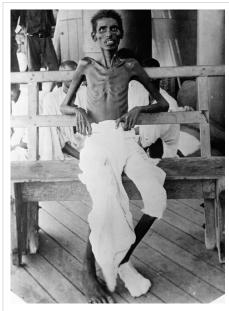
The All India Muslim League was founded by the All India Muhammadan Educational Conference at Dhaka (now Bangladesh), in 1906, in the context of the circumstances that were generated over the partition of Bengal in 1905. Being a political party to secure the interests of the Muslim diaspora in British India, the Muslim League played a decisive role during the 1940s in the Indian independence movement and developed into the driving force behind the creation of Pakistan in the Indian subcontinent.^[9]

In 1906, Muhammad Ali Jinnah joined the Indian National Congress, which was the largest Indian political organization. Like most of the Congress at the time, Jinnah did not favour outright independence, considering British influences on education, law, culture and industry as beneficial to India. Jinnah became a member on the sixty-member Imperial Legislative Council. The council had no real power or authority, and included a large number of un-elected pro-Raj loyalists and Europeans. Nevertheless, Jinnah was instrumental in the passing of the *Child Marriages Restraint Act*, the legitimization of the Muslim waqf (religious endowments) and was appointed to the Sandhurst committee, which helped establish the Indian Military Academy at Dehra Dun. [10] During World War I, Jinnah joined other Indian moderates in supporting the British war effort, hoping that Indians would be rewarded with political freedoms.

First World War

World War I began with an unprecedented outpouring of love and goodwill towards the United Kingdom from within the mainstream political leadership, contrary to initial British fears of an Indian revolt. India contributed massively to the British war effort by providing men and resources. About 1.3 million Indian soldiers and labourers served in Europe, Africa, and the Middle East, while both the Indian government and the princes sent large supplies of food, money, and ammunition. However, Bengal and Punjab remained hotbeds of anti colonial activities. Nationalism in Bengal, increasingly closely linked with the unrests in Punjab, was significant enough to nearly paralyse the regional administration. [11][12]

None of the overseas conspiracies had significant impact on Indians inside India, and there were no major mutinies or violent outbursts. However, they did lead to profound fears of insurrection among British officials, preparing them to use extreme force to frighten the Indians into submission. [13]



This photograph shows an emaciated Indian Army soldier who survived the Siege of Kut

Nationalist response to war

In the aftermath of the World War I, high casualty rates, soaring inflation compounded by heavy taxation, a widespread influenza epidemic, and the disruption of trade during the war escalated human suffering in India.

The pre-war nationalist movement revived as moderate and extremist groups within the Congress submerged their differences in order to stand as a unified front. They argued their enormous services to the British Empire during the war demanded a reward, and demonstrated the Indian capacity for self rule. In 1916, the Congress succeeded in forging the Lucknow Pact, a temporary alliance with the Muslim League over the issues of devolution of political power and the future of Islam in the region.

British reforms

The British themselves adopted a "carrot and stick" approach in recognition of India's support during the war and in response to renewed nationalist demands. In August 1917, Edwin Montagu, the secretary of state for India, made the historic announcement in Parliament that the British policy for India was "increasing association of Indians in every branch of the administration and the gradual development of self-governing institutions with a view to the progressive realization of responsible government in India as an integral part of the British Empire." The means of achieving the proposed measure were later enshrined in the Government of India Act 1919, which introduced the principle of a dual mode of administration, or diarchy, in which both elected Indian legislators and appointed British

officials shared power. The act also expanded the central and provincial legislatures and widened the franchise considerably. Diarchy set in motion certain real changes at the provincial level: a number of non-controversial or "transferred" portfolios, such as agriculture, local government, health, education, and public works, were handed over to Indians, while more sensitive matters such as finance, taxation, and maintaining law and order were retained by the provincial British administrators.^[14]

Gandhi arrives in India



Gandhi in 1918, at the time of the Kheda and Champaran satyagrahas

Mohandas Karamchand Gandhi (Mahatma Gandhi), had been a prominent leader of the Indian nationalist movement in South Africa, and had been a vocal opponent of basic discrimination and abusive labour treatment as well as suppressive police control such as the Rowlatt Acts. During these protests, Gandhi had perfected the concept of *satyagraha*, which had been inspired by the philosophy of Baba Ram Singh (famous for leading the Kuka Movement in the Punjab in 1872). In January 1914 (well before the First World War began) Gandhi was successful. The hated legislation against Indians was repealed and all Indian political prisoners were released by General Jan Smuts. [15]

Gandhi returned to India, on 6 January 1915 and initially entered the political fray not with calls for a nation-state, but in support of the unified commerce-oriented territory that the Congress Party had been asking for. Gandhi believed that the industrial development and educational development that the Europeans had brought with them were required to alleviate many of India's problems. Gopal Krishna Gokhale, a veteran Congressman and Indian leader, became Gandhi's mentor. Gandhi's ideas and strategies of non-violent civil disobedience initially appeared impractical to some Indians and Congressmen. In

Gandhi's own words, "civil disobedience is civil breach of unmoral statutory enactments." It had to be carried out non-violently by withdrawing cooperation with the corrupt state. Gandhi's ability to inspire millions of common people became clear when he used satyagraha during the anti-Rowlatt Act protests in Punjab. Gandhi had great respect for Lokmanya Tilak. His programmes were all inspired by Tilak's "Chatusutri" programme.

Gandhi's vision would soon bring millions of regular Indians into the movement, transforming it from an elitist struggle to a national one. The nationalist cause was expanded to include the interests and industries that formed the economy of common Indians. For example, in Champaran, Bihar, Gandhi championed the plight of desperately poor sharecroppers and landless farmers who were being forced to pay oppressive taxes and grow cash crops at the expense of the subsistence crops which formed their food supply. The profits from the crops they grew were insufficient to provide for their sustenance.

The positive impact of reform was seriously undermined in 1919 by the Rowlatt Act, named after the recommendations made the previous year to the Imperial Legislative Council by the Rowlatt Commission. The Rowlatt Act vested the Viceroy's government with extraordinary powers to quell sedition by silencing the press, detaining the political activists without trial, and arresting any individuals suspected of sedition or treason without a warrant. In protest, a nationwide cessation of work (*hartal*) was called, marking the beginning of widespread, although not nationwide, popular discontent.

The agitation unleashed by the acts led to British attacks on demonstrators, culminating on 13 April 1919, in the Jallianwala Bagh massacre (also known as the Amritsar Massacre) in Amritsar, Punjab. The British military

commander, Brigadier-General Reginald Dyer, blocked the main entrance-cum-exit, and ordered his soldiers to fire into an unarmed and unsuspecting crowd of some 15,000 men, women and children. They had assembled at Jallianwala Bagh, a walled courtyard, but Dyer had banned all meetings and proposed to teach all Indians a lesson. A total of 1,651 rounds were fired, killing 379 people (as according to an official British commission; Indian estimates ranged as high as 1,499 and wounding 1,137 in the massacre. Dyer was forced to retire but was hailed as a hero in Britain, demonstrating to Indian nationalists that the Empire was beholden to public opinion in Britain but not in India. The episode dissolved wartime hopes of home rule and goodwill and opened a rift that could not be bridged short of complete independence.

The non-cooperation movements

The independence movement as late as 1918 was an elitist movement far removed from the masses of India, focusing essentially on a unified commerce-oriented territory and hardly a call for a united nation. Gandhi changed all that and made it a mass movement.

The first non-cooperation movement

At the Calcutta session of the Congress in September 1920, Gandhi convinced other leaders of the need to start a non-cooperation movement in support of Khilafat as well as for swaraj (self rule). The first satyagraha movement urged the use of khadi and Indian material as alternatives to those shipped from Britain. It also urged people to boycott British educational institutions and law courts; resign from government employment; refuse to pay taxes; and forsake British titles and honours. Although this came too late to influence the framing of the new *Government of India Act 1919*, the movement enjoyed widespread popular support, and the resulting unparalleled magnitude of disorder presented a serious challenge to foreign rule. However, Gandhi called off the movement following the Chauri Chaura incident, which saw the death of twenty-three policemen at the hands of an angry mob.

Membership in the party was opened to anyone prepared to pay a token fee, and a hierarchy of committees was established and made responsible for discipline and control over a hitherto amorphous and diffuse movement. The party was transformed from an elite organization to one of mass national appeal and participation.

Gandhi was sentenced in 1922 to six years of prison, but was released after serving two. On his release from prison, he set up the Sabarmati Ashram in Ahmedabad, on the banks of river Sabarmati, established the newspaper *Young India*, and inaugurated a series of reforms aimed at the socially disadvantaged within Hindu society — the rural poor, and the untouchables. [20][21]

This era saw the emergence of new generation of Indians from within the Congress Party, including C. Rajagopalachari, Jawaharlal Nehru, Vallabhbhai Patel, Subhash Chandra Bose and others- who would later on come to form the prominent voices of the Indian independence movement, whether keeping with Gandhian Values, or, as in the case of Bose's Indian National Army, diverging from it.

The Indian political spectrum was further broadened in the mid-1920s by the emergence of both moderate and militant parties, such as the Swaraj Party, Hindu Mahasabha, Communist Party of India and the Rashtriya Swayamsevak Sangh. Regional political organizations also continued to represent the interests of non-Brahmins in Madras, Mahars in Maharashtra, and Sikhs in Punjab. However, people like Mahakavi Subramanya Bharathi, Vanchinathan and Neelakanda Brahmachari played a major role from Tamil Nadu in both freedom struggle and fighting for equality for all castes and communities.

Purna Swaraj

Following the rejection of the recommendations of the Simon Commission by Indians, an all-party conference was held at Bombay in May 1928. This was meant to instill a sense of resistance among people. The conference appointed a drafting committee under Motilal Nehru to draw up a constitution for India. The Calcutta session of the Indian National Congress asked the British government to accord dominion status to India by December 1929, or a countrywide civil disobedience movement would be launched. By 1929, however, in the midst of rising political discontent and increasingly violent regional movements, the call for complete independence from Britain began to find increasing grounds within the Congress leadership. Under the presidency of Jawaharlal Nehru at its historic Lahore session in December 1929, the Indian National Congress adopted a resolution calling for complete independence from the British. It authorised the Working Committee to launch a civil disobedience movement throughout the country. It was decided that 26 January 1930 should be observed all over India as the *Purna Swaraj* (total independence) Day. Many Indian political parties and Indian revolutionaries of a wide spectrum united to observe the day with honour and pride.

Karachi congress session-1931 A special session was held to endorse the Gandhi-Irwin or Delhi Pact. The goal of Purna swaraj was reiterated. Two resolutions were adopted-one on Fundamental rights and other on National Economic programme, which made the session particularly memmorable.

This was the first time the congress spelt out what swaraj would mean for the masses.

Salt March and civil disobedience

Gandhi emerged from his long seclusion by undertaking his most famous campaign, a march of about 400 kilometers [240 miles] from his commune in Ahmedabad to Dandi, on the coast of Gujarat between 11 March and 6 April 1930. The march is usually known as the *Dandi March* or the *Salt Satyagraha*. At Dandi, in protest against British taxes on salt, he and thousands of followers broke the law by making their own salt from seawater. It took 24 days for him to complete this march. Every day he covered 10 miles and gave many speeches.

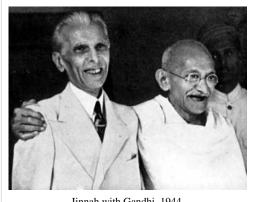
In April 1930 there were violent police-crowd clashes in Calcutta. Approximately 100,000 people were imprisoned in the course of the Civil disobedience movement (1930–31), while in Peshawar unarmed demonstrators were fired upon in the Qissa Khwani bazaar massacre. The latter event catapulted the then newly formed Khudai Khidmatgar movement (founder Khan Abdul Ghaffar Khan, the *Frontier Gandhi*) onto the National scene. While Gandhi was in jail, the first Round Table Conference was held in London in November 1930, without representation from the Indian National Congress. The ban upon the Congress was removed because of economic hardships caused by the satyagraha. Gandhi, along with other members of the Congress Working Committee, was released from prison in January 1931.

In March 1931, the Gandhi-Irwin Pact was signed, and the government agreed to set all political prisoners free (Although, some of the key revolutionaries were not set free and the death sentence for Bhagat Singh and his two comrades was not taken back which further intensified the agitation against Congress not only outside it but within the Congress itself). In return, Gandhi agreed to discontinue the civil disobedience movement and participate as the sole representative of the Congress in the second Round Table Conference, which was held in London in September 1931. However, the conference ended in failure in December 1931. Gandhi returned to India and decided to resume the civil disobedience movement in January 1932.

For the next few years, the Congress and the government were locked in conflict and negotiations until what became the Government of India Act 1935 could be hammered out. By then, the rift between the Congress and the Muslim League had become unbridgeable as each pointed the finger at the other acrimoniously. The Muslim League disputed the claim of the Congress to represent all people of India, while the Congress disputed the Muslim League's claim to voice the aspirations of all Muslims.

Elections and the Lahore resolution

The Government of India Act 1935, the voluminous and final constitutional effort at governing British India, articulated three major goals: establishing a loose federal structure, achieving provincial autonomy, and safeguarding minority interests through separate electorates. The federal provisions, intended to unite princely states and British India at the centre, were not implemented because of ambiguities in safeguarding the existing privileges of princes. In February 1937, however, provincial autonomy became a reality when elections were held; the Congress emerged as the dominant party with a clear majority in five provinces and held an upper hand in two, while the Muslim League performed poorly.



Jinnah with Gandhi, 1944.

In 1939, the Viceroy Linlithgow declared India's entrance into World War II without consulting provincial governments. In protest, the Congress asked all of its elected representatives to resign from the government. Jinnah, the president of the Muslim League, persuaded participants at the annual Muslim League session at Lahore in 1940 to adopt what later came to be known as the Lahore Resolution, demanding the division of India into two separate sovereign states, one Muslim, the other Hindu; sometimes referred to as Two Nation Theory. Although the idea of Pakistan had been introduced as early as 1930, very few had responded to it. However, the volatile political climate and hostilities between the Hindus and Muslims transformed the idea of Pakistan into a stronger demand.

Revolutionary activities

Apart from a few stray incidents, the armed rebellion against the British rulers was not organized before the beginning of the 20th century. The Indian revolutionary underground began gathering momentum through the first decade of 20th century, with groups arising in Bengal, Maharastra, Orissa, Bihar, Uttar Pradesh, Punjab, and the then Madras Presidency including what is now called South India. More groups were scattered around India. Particularly notable movements arose in Bengal, especially around the Partition of Bengal in 1905, and in Punjab. [22] In the former case, it was the educated, intelligent and dedicated youth of the urban Middle Class Bhadralok community that came to form the "Classic" Indian revolutionary, [22] while the latter had an immense support base in the rural and Military society of the Punjab. Organisations like Jugantar and Anushilan Samiti had emerged in the 1900s (decade). The revolutionary philosophies and movement made their presence felt during the 1905 Partition of Bengal. Arguably, the initial steps to organize the revolutionaries were taken by Aurobindo Ghosh, his brother Barin Ghosh, Bhupendranath Datta etc. when they formed the Jugantar party in April 1906. [23] Jugantar was created as an inner circle of the Anushilan Samiti which was already present in Bengal mainly as a revolutionary society in the guise of a fitness club.

The Anushilan Samiti and Jugantar opened several branches throughout Bengal and other parts of India and recruited young men and women to participate in the revolutionary activities. Several murders and looting were done, with many revolutionaries being captured and imprisoned. The Jugantar party leaders like Barin Ghosh and Bagha Jatin initiated making of explosives. Amongst a number of notable events of political terrorism were the Alipore bomb case, the Muzaffarpur killing tried several activists and many were sentenced to deportation for life, while Khudiram Bose was hanged. The founding of the India House and The Indian Sociologist under Shyamji Krishna Varma in London in 1905 took the radical movement to Britain itself. On 1 July 1909, Madan Lal Dhingra, an Indian student closely identified with India House in London shot dead William Hutt Curzon Wylie, a British M.P. in London. 1912 saw the Delhi-Lahore Conspiracy planned under Rash Behari Bose, an erstwhile Jugantar member, to assassinate the then Viceroy of India Charles Hardinge. The conspiracy culminated in an attempt to Bomb the Viceregal procession on 23 December 1912, on the occasion of transferring the Imperial Capital from Calcutta to Delhi. In the aftermath of this event, concentrated police and intelligence efforts were made by the British Indian police to destroy the Bengali and Punjabi revolutionary underground, which came under intense pressure for sometime. Rash Behari successfully evaded capture for nearly three years. However, by the time that World War I opened in Europe, the revolutionary movement in Bengal (and Punjab) had revived and was strong enough to nearly paralyse the local administration. [11][12] in 1914, Indian revolutionaries made conspiracies against British rule but the plan was failed and many revolutionaries sacrificed their life and others were arrested and sent to the Cellular Jail (Kalapani) in Andaman and Nicobar Islands. During the First World War, the revolutionaries planned to import arms and ammunitions from Germany and stage an armed revolution against the British. [24]

The Ghadar Party operated from abroad and cooperated with the revolutionaries in India. This party was instrumental in helping revolutionaries inside India catch hold of foreign arms.

After the First World War, the revolutionary activities began to slowly wane as it suffered major setbacks due to the arrest of prominent leaders. In the 1920s, some revolutionary activists began to reorganize.

Kakori Conspiracy (9 August 1925)

In order to overturn the British Rule through arms, the idea of the robbery was conceived by Ram Prasad Bismil and Ashfaqullah Khan who belonged to the Hindustan Republican Association (HRA, which became HSRA or Hindustan Socialist Republican Association in 1928) that was created to carry out revolutionary activities against the British Empire in India. The objective of the HRA was to conduct an armed revolution against the British government. The organization needed money for the supply of weaponry, and thus Bismil decided to loot a train on one of the Northern Railway lines. ^[25] The robbery plan was executed by Ram Prasad Bismil, Ashfaqulla Khan, Rajendra Lahiri, Chandrasekhar Azad, Sachindra Bakshi, Keshab Chakravarthy, Manmathnath Gupta, Murari Sharma (fake name of Murari Lal Gupta), Mukundi Lal (Mukundi Lal Gupta), ^{[26][27][28]} In this historical event 40 persons belonging to HRA were arrested and a Conspiracy case was filed in which 4 were sentenced to death and 16 others were given imprisonment varying from 2 years to life importation.

Hindustan Socialist Republican Association was formed under the leadership of Chandrasekhar Azad. Bhagat Singh and Batukeshwar Dutt threw a bomb inside the Central Legislative Assembly on 8 April 1929 protesting against the passage of the Public Safety Bill and the Trade Disputes Bill while raising slogans of Inqulab Zindabad, though no one was killed or injured in the bomb incident. Bhagat Singh, Rajguru and Sukhdev immediately surrendered after the bombing incident and a trial was conducted. Following the trial (Central Assembly Bomb Case), Bhagat Singh, Sukhdev and Rajguru were hanged in 1931. Allama Mashriqi founded Khaksar Tehreek in order to direct particularly the Muslims towards the independence movement. [29]

Surya Sen, along with other activists, raided the Chittagong armoury on 18 April 1930 to capture arms and ammunition and to destroy government communication system to establish a local governance. Pritilata Waddedar led an attack on a European club in Chittagong in 1932, while Bina Das attempted to assassinate Stanley Jackson, the Governor of Bengal inside the convocation hall of Calcutta University. Following the Chittagong armoury raid case, Surya Sen was hanged and several others were deported for life to the Cellular Jail in Andaman. The Bengal Volunteers started operating in 1928. On 8 December 1930, the Benoy-Badal-Dinesh trio of the party entered the secretariat Writers' Building in Kolkata and murdered Col. N. S. Simpson, the Inspector General of Prisons.

On 13 March 1940, Udham Singh shot Michael O'Dwyer, generally held responsible for the Amritsar Massacre, in London. However, as the political scenario changed in the late 1930s — with the mainstream leaders considering several options offered by the British and with religious politics coming into play — revolutionary activities gradually declined. Many past revolutionaries joined mainstream politics by joining Congress and other parties, especially communist ones, while many of the activists were kept under hold in different jails across the country.

The climax of Indian independence movement

In 1937, provincial elections were held and the Congress came to power in eight of the eleven provinces. This was a strong indicator of the Indian people's support for complete Independence.

When World war II started, Viceroy Linlithgow had unilaterally declared India a belligerent on the side of the Britain, without consulting the elected Indian representatives. In opposition to Linlithgow's action, the entire Congress leadership resigned from the local government councils. However, many wanted to support the British war effort, and indeed the British Indian Army was the largest volunteer forces, numbering 2,500,000 men during the war. [30]

Especially during the Battle of Britain in 1940, Gandhi resisted calls for massive civil disobedience movements that came from within as well as outside his party, stating he did not seek India's freedom out of the ashes of a destroyed Britain. In 1942 the Congress launched the Quit India movement. There was some violence but the Raj cracked down and arrested tens of thousands of Congress leaders, including all the main national and provincial figures. They were not released until the end of the war was in sight in 1945.

The independence movement saw the rise of three movements. The first of these, the Kakori conspiracy (9 August 1925) was done by the Indian youth under the leadership of Pandit Ram Prasad Bismil, second was the Azad Hind movement led by Netaji Subhash Chandra Bose, saw its inception early in the war and joined with Germany and Japan to fight Britain. And the third one after 17 years of the first from the same date (9) saw its inception in August 1942 which was led by Lal Bahadur Shastri^[31] and the common man resulting the failure of the Cripps' mission to reach a consensus with the Indian political leadership over the transfer of power after the war.

Quit India Movement

The Quit India Movement (*Bharat Chhodo Andolan*) or the *August Movement* was a civil disobedience movement in India launched on 9 August 1942 in response to Gandhi's call for immediate independence of India and against sending Indians to World War II. He asked all the teachers to leave their school, and other Indians to leave away their respective jobs and take part in this movement. Due to Gandhi's political influence, request was followed on a massive proportion of the population.

At the outbreak of war, the Congress Party had during the Wardha meeting of the working-committee in September 1939, passed a resolution conditionally supporting the fight against fascism, [32] but were rebuffed when they asked for independence in return. In March 1942, faced with an increasingly dissatisfied sub-continent only reluctantly participating in the war, and deteriorations in the war situation in Europe and South East Asia, and with growing dissatisfactions among Indian troops- especially in Europe- and among the civilian population in the sub-continent, the British government sent a delegation to India under Stafford Cripps, in what came to be known as the Cripps' Mission. The purpose of the mission was to negotiate with the Indian National Congress a deal to obtain total co-operation during the war, in return of progressive devolution and distribution of power from the crown and the Viceroy to elected Indian legislature. However, the talks failed, having failed to address the key demand of a timeframe towards self-government, and of definition of the powers to be relinquished, essentially portraying an offer of limited dominion-status that was wholly unacceptable to the Indian movement. [33] To force the British Raj to meet its demands and to obtain definitive word on total independence, the Congress took the decision to launch the Quit India Movement.

The aim of the movement was to bring the British Government to the negotiating table by holding the Allied War Effort hostage. The call for determined but passive resistance that signified the certitude that Gandhi foresaw for the movement is best described by his call to *Do or Die*, issued on 8 August at the Gowalia Tank Maidan in Bombay, since renamed *August Kranti Maidan* (August Revolution Ground). However, almost the entire Congress leadership, and not merely at the national level, was put into confinement less than twenty-four hours after Gandhi's speech, and the greater number of the Congress khiland were to spend the rest of the war in jail.

On 8 August 1942, the Quit India resolution was passed at the Bombay session of the All India Congress Committee (AICC). The draft proposed that if the British did not accede to the demands, a massive Civil Disobedience would be launched. However, it was an extremely controversial decision. At Gowalia Tank, Mumbai, Gandhi urged Indians to follow a non-violent civil disobedience. Gandhi told the masses to act as an independent nation and not to follow the orders of the British. The British, already alarmed by the advance of the Japanese army to the India-Burma border, responded the next day by imprisoning Gandhi at the Aga Khan Palace in Pune. The Congress Party's Working Committee, or national leadership was arrested all together and imprisoned at the Ahmednagar Fort. They also banned the party altogether. Large-scale protests and demonstrations were held all over the country. Workers remained absent en masse and strikes were called. The movement also saw widespread acts of sabotage, Indian under-ground organisation carried out bomb attacks on allied supply convoys, government buildings were set on fire, electricity lines were disconnected and transport and communication lines were severed. The disruptions were under control in a few weeks and had little impact on the war effort. The movement soon became a leaderless act of defiance, with a number of acts that deviated from Gandhi's principle of non-violence. In large parts of the country, the local underground organisations took over the movement. However, by 1943, Quit India had petered out.

All the other major parties rejected the Quit India plan, and most cooperated closely with the British, as did the princely states, the civil service and the police. The Muslim League supported the Raj and grew rapidly in membership, and in influence with the British.

Indian National Army

The arbitrary entry of India into the war was strongly opposed by Netaji Subhash Chandra Bose, who had been elected President of the Congress twice, in 1938 and 1939. After lobbying against participation in the war, he resigned from Congress in 1939 and started a new party, the All India Forward Bloc. In 1940, a year after war broke out, the British had put Bose under house arrest in Calcutta. However, he escaped and made his way through Afghanistan to Germany to seek Axis help to raise an army to fight the British. Here, he raised with Rommel's Indian POWs what came to be known as the Free India Legion. Bose made his way ultimately to Japanese South Asia, where he formed what came to be known as the Azad Hind Government, a Provisional Free Indian Government in exile, and organized the Indian National Army with Indian POWs and Indian expatriates in South-East Asia, with the help of the Japanese. Its aim was to reach India as a fighting force that would build on public resentment to inspire revolts among Indian soldiers to defeat the British raj.

The INA was to see action against the allies, including the British Indian Army, in the forests of Arakan, Burma and in Assam, laying siege on Imphal and Kohima with the Japanese 15th Army. During the war, the Andaman and Nicobar islands were captured by the Japanese and handed over by them to the INA. Bose renamed them *Shahid* (Martyr) and *Swaraj* (Independence).

The INA would ultimately fail, owing to disrupted logistics, poor arms and supplies from the Japanese, and lack of support and training. [35] The supposed death of Bose is seen as culmination of the entire Azad Hind Movement. Following the surrender of Japan, the troops of the INA were brought to India and a number of them charged with treason. However, Bose's actions had captured the public imagination and also turned the inclination of the native soldiers of the British Indian Forces from one of loyalty to the crown to support for the soldiers that the Raj deemed as collaborators. [34][35]

After the war, the stories of the Azad Hind movement and its army that came into public limelight during the trials of soldiers of the INA in 1945 were seen



Netaji Subhash Chandra Bose.

as so inflammatory that, fearing mass revolts and uprisings — not just in India, but across its empire — the British Government forbade the BBC from broadcasting their story. [36] Newspapers reported the summary execution of INA soldiers held at Red Fort.^[37] During and after the trial, mutinies broke out in the British Indian Armed forces, most notably in the Royal Indian Navy which found public support throughout India, from Karachi to Mumbai and from Vizag to Kolkata.^{[38][39][40]} Many historians have argued that the INA, and the mutinies it inspired, were strong driving forces behind the transfer of power in 1947.^{[41][42][43]}

Christmas Island Mutiny

After two Japanese attacks on Christmas Island in late February and early March 1942 relations between the British officers and their Indian troops broke down. On the night of 10 March the Indian troops led by a Sikh policemen mutinied killing the five British soldiers and the imprisoning of the remaining 21 Europeans on the island. Later on 31 March, a Japanese fleet arrived at the island and the Indians surrendered. [44]

Independence and partition of India

On 3 June 1947, Viscount Louis Mountbatten, the last British Governor-General of India, announced the partitioning of British India into India and Pakistan. With the speedy passage through the British Parliament of the Indian Independence Act 1947, at 11:57 on 14 August 1947 Pakistan was declared a separate nation, and at 12:02, just after midnight, on 15 August 1947, India also became an independent nation. Violent clashes between Hindus, Sikhs and Muslims followed. Prime Minister Nehru and Deputy Prime Minister Sardar Vallabhbhai Patel invited Mountbatten to continue as Governor General of India. He was replaced in June 1948 by Chakravarti Rajagopalachari. Patel took on the responsibility of bringing into the Indian Union 565 princely states, steering efforts by his "iron fist in a velvet glove" policies, exemplified by the use of military force to integrate Junagadh and Hyderabad state (Operation Polo) into India. On the other hand Pandit Jawahar Lal Nehru kept the issue of Kashmir in his hands.

The Constituent Assembly completed the work of drafting the constitution on 26 November 1949; on 26 January 1950 the Republic of India was officially proclaimed. The Constituent Assembly elected Dr. Rajendra Prasad as the first President of India, taking over from Governor General Rajgopalachari. Subsequently India invaded and annexed Goa and Portugal's other Indian enclaves in 1961), the French ceded Chandernagore in 1951, and Pondicherry and its remaining Indian colonies in 1956, and Sikkim voted to join the Indian Union in 1975.

Following Independence in 1947, India remained in the Commonwealth of Nations, and relations between the UK and India have been friendly. There are many areas in which the two countries seek stronger ties for mutual benefit, and there are also strong cultural and social ties between the two nations. The UK has an ethnic Indian population of over 1.6 million. In 2010, Prime Minister David Cameron described Indian – British relations as the "New Special Relationship". [45]

Notes

- [1] Chandra 1989, p. 26
- [2] Chandra 1989, p. 521
- [3] Heehs 1998, p. 9
- [4] The English colonial empire, including the territories and trading posts in Asia, came under British control following the union of England and Scotland in 1707.
- [5] Heehs 1998, pp. 9–10
- [6] Heehs 1998, pp. 11–12
- [7] http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Mangal_Pandey#Consequences
- [8] John R. McLane, "The Decision to Partition Bengal in 1905," Indian Economic and Social History Review, July 1965, 2#3, pp 221-237
- [9] Jalal, Ayesha (1994) The Sole Spokesman: Jinnah, the Muslim League and the Demand for Pakistan. Cambridge University Press. ISBN 978-0-521-45850-4
- [10] Official website, Government of Pakistan. "The Statesman: Jinnah's differences with the Congress" (http://web.archive.org/web/20060127234847/http://www.pakistan.gov.pk/Quaid/politician7.htm). Archived from the original (http://www.pakistan.gov.pk/Quaid/politician7.htm) on 2006-01-27. Retrieved 2006-04-20.
- [11] Gupta 1997, p. 12
- [12] Popplewell 1995, p. 201

- [13] Lawrence James, Raj: The Making and Unmaking of British India (2000) pp 439-518
- [14] James, Raj: The Making and Unmaking of British India (2000) pp 459-60, 519-20
- [15] Denis Judd, Empire: The British Imperial Experience From 1765 To The Present (pp 226-411998)
- [16] Nigel Collett, The Butcher of Amritsar: General Reginald Dyer (2006)
- [17] Nick Lloyd, The Amritsar Massacre: The Untold Story of One Fateful Day (2011)
- [18] Derek Sayer, "British Reaction to the Amritsar Massacre 1919-1920," Past & Present, May 1991, Issue 131, pp 130-164
- [19] Dennis Judd, "The Amritsar Massacre of 1919: Gandhi, the Raj and the Growth of Indian Nationalism, 1915-39," in Judd, *Empire: The British Imperial Experience from 1765 to the Present* (1996) pp 258-72
- [20] Sankar Ghose, Mahatma Gandhi (1991) p. 107
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- [22] Fraser 1977, p. 257
- [23] Banglapedia article (http://banglapedia.search.com.bd/HT/J_0130.htm) by Mohammad Shah
- [24] Rowlatt Report (§109-110); First Spark of Revolution by A.C. Guha, pp. 424-34.
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- [26] Dr. Mahaur Bhagwandas Kakori Shaheed Smriti 1977 Lucknow Kakori Shaheed Ardhshatabdi Samaroh Samiti page 30
- [27] Sharma Vidyarnav Yug Ke Devta: Bismil Aur Ashfaq 2004 Delhi Praveen Prakashan page 118 ISBN 81-7783-078-3
- [28] 'Krant'M.L.Verma Sarfaroshi Ki Tamanna (Part-1) 1997 Delhi Praveen Prakashan page 35
- [29] Khaksar Tehrik Ki Jiddo Juhad Volume 1. Author Khaksar Sher Zaman
- [30] Roy, Kaushik, "Military Loyalty in the Colonial Context: A Case Study of the Indian Army during World War II," *Journal of Military History* (2009) 73#2 pp 144-172
- [31] Dr.'Krant'M.L.Verma Swadhinta Sangram Ke Krantikari Sahitya Ka Itihas (Vol-2) p.559
- [32] "The Congress and The Freedom Movement" (http://web.archive.org/web/20070811001411/http://www.aicc.org.in/the_congress_and_the_freedom_movement.htm#the). Indian National Congress. Archived from the original (http://www.aicc.org.in/the_congress_and_the_freedom_movement.htm#the) on 2007-08-11. Retrieved 2007-09-24.
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 - The Government of India had hoped, by prosecuting members of the INA, to reinforce the morale of the Indian army. It succeeded only in creating unease, in making the soldiers feel slightly ashamed that they themselves had supported the British. If Bose and his men had been on the right side and all India now confirmed that they were then Indians in the Indian army must have been on the wrong side. It slowly dawned upon the Government of India that the backbone of the British rule, the Indian army, might now no longer be trustworthy. The ghost of Subhas Bose, like Hamlet's father, walked the battlements of the Red Fort (where the INA soldiers were being tried), and his suddenly amplified figure overawed the conference that was to lead to independence.
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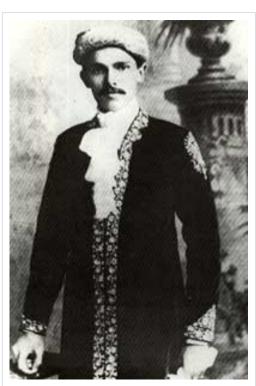
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- Timeline of Indian independence movement (http://www.kamat.com/kalranga/freedom/timeline.htm)

Pakistan Movement

The Pakistan Movement or Tehrik-e-Pakistan (Urdu: تحریک ياكستان) refers to the successful historical movement against British Raj and Indian Congress to have an independent Muslim state named Pakistan created from the separation of the north-western region of the Indian subcontinent, partitioned within or outside the British Indian Empire. It had its origins in the United Provinces of Agra and Oudh (present day Uttar Pradesh). Muslims there were a minority, yet their elite had a disproportionate amount of representation in the civil service and a strong degree of cultural and literary influence. The idea of Pakistan spread from Northern India through the Muslim diaspora of this region, and spread outwards to the Muslim communities of the rest of India. [1] This movement was led by lawyer Muhammad Ali Jinnah, along with other prominent founding fathers of Pakistan including Allama Iqbal, Liaqat Ali Khan, Muhammad Zafarullah Khan, Aga Khan III, Fatima Jinnah, Bahadur Yar Jung, Maulana Mohammad Ali Jauhar, Chaudhry Khaliquzzaman, A.K. Fazlul Huq, Sardar Abdur Rab Nishtar, Jogendra Nath Mandal, Victor Turner, Ra'ana Liaquat Ali Khan, and Dr. Sir Ziauddin Ahmed.

The movement ultimately achieved success in 1947, when part of northwest India was partitioned, granted independence and renamed Pakistan.



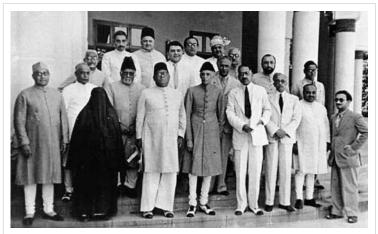
Mohammad Ali Jinnah (1876-1948) was an ideological and political leader of the Pakistan Movement.

History of the movement

[2][3]

Minority Muslims

The 1882 Local Self-Government Act had already troubled Syed Ahmed Khan. When, in 1906, the British announced their intention to establish Legislative Councils, Muhsin al-Mulk, the secretary of both the All India Muhammadan Educational Conference and MAO College, hoped to win a separate Legislative Council for Muslims by making correspondence to several prominent Muslims in different regions of the sub-continent and organising a delegation led by Aga Khan III to meet with Viceroy Lord Minto, [4][5][6][7] a deal to



The Muslim League Governing Council at the Lahore session. The woman wearing the black cloak is Muhatarma Amjadi Banu Begum, the wife of Maulana Mohammad Ali Jauhar, a prominent Muslim League leader. Begum was a leading representative of the UP's Muslim women during the years of the Pakistan Movement.

which Minto agreed because it appeared to assist the British divide and rule strategy. The delegation consisted of 35 members, who each represented their respective region proportionately, mentioned hereunder.

1. Sir Aga Khan III. (Head of the delegation); (Bombay). 2. Nawab Mohsin-ul-Mulk. (Aligarh). 3. Nawab Waqar-ul-Mulk. (Muradabad). 4. Maulvi Hafiz Hakim Ajmal Khan. (Delhi). 5. Maulvi Syed Karamat Husain. (Allahabad). 6. Maulvi Sharifuddin (Patna). 7. Nawab Syed Sardar Ali Khan (Bombay). 8. Syed Abdul Rauf. (Allahabad). 9. Maulvi Habiburrehman Khan. (Aligarh). 10. Sahibzada Aftab Ahmed Khan. (Aligarh). 11. Abdul Salam Khan. (Rampur). 12. Rais Muhammed Ahtasham Ali. (Lukhnow) 13. Khan Bahadur Muhammed Muzammilullah Khan. (Aligarh). 14. Haji Muhammed Ismail Khan. (Aligarh). 15. Shehzada Bakhtiar Shah. (Calcutta). 16. Malik Umar Hayat Khan Tiwana. (Shahpur). 17. Khan Bahadur Muhammed Shah Deen. (Lahore). 18. Khan Bahadur Syed Nawab Ali Chaudhary. (Memon Singh). 19. Bahadur Mirza Shuja'at Ali (Murshidabad). 20. Nawab Nasir Hussain Khan Bahadur. (Patna). 21. Khan Bahadur Syed Ameer Hassan Khan. (Calcutta). 22. Syed Muhammed Imam. (Patna). 23. Nawab Sarfaraz Hussain Khan Bahadur. (Patna). 24. Maulvi Rafeeuddin Ahmed. (Bombay). 25. Khan Bahadur Ahmed Muhaeeuddin. (Madras). 26. Ibraheem Bhai Adamjee Pirbhai. (Bombay). 27. Maulvi Abdul Raheem. (Calcutta). 28. Syed Allahdad Shah. (Khairpur). 29. Maulana H. M. Malik. (Nagpur). 30. Khan Bahadur Col. Abdul Majeed Khan. (Patiala). 31. Khan Bahadur Khawaja Yousuf Shah. (Amritsar). 32. Khan Bahadur Mian Muhammad Shafi. (Lahore). 33. Khan Bahadur Shaikh Ghulam Sadiq. (Amritsar). Syed Nabiullah. (Allahabad). 35. Khalifa Syed Muhammed Khan Bahadur. (Patna). [8]



Aga Khan III in 1936.



Nawab Mohsin ul Mulk,(left) who organized the Simla deputation, with Sir Syed Ahmed Khan (Centre), Sir Syed's son Justice Syed Mahmood (extreme right). Syed Mahmood was the first Muslim to serve as a High Court judge in the British Raj.

For Jinnah, Islam laid a cultural base for an ideology

of ethnic nationalism whose objective was to gather the Muslim community in order to defend the Muslim minorities. Jinnah's representation of minority Muslims was quite apparent in 1928, when in the All-Party Muslim Conference, he was ready to swap the advantages of separate electorates for a quota of 33% of seats at the Centre. He maintained his views at the Round Table Conferences, while the Muslims of Punjab and Bengal were vying for a much more decentralized political setup. Many of their requests were met in the 1935 Government of India Act. Jinnah and the Muslim League played a peripheral role at the time and in 1937 could manage to gather only 5% of the Muslim vote. Jinnah refused to back down and went ahead with his plan. He presented the two-nation theory in the now famous Lahore Resolution in March 1940, seeking a separate Muslim state, [9]

The idea of a separate state had first been introduced by Allama Iqbal in his speech in December 1930 as the President of the Muslim League. [10] The state that he visualized included only Punjab, Sindh, North West Frontier Province (NWFP), and Balochistan. Three years later, the name Pakistan was proposed in a declaration in 1933 by

Choudhary Rahmat Ali, a University of Cambridge graduate. Again, Bengal was left out of the proposal. [11]

In his book *Idea of Pakistan*, Stephen P. Cohen writes on the influence of South Asian Muslim nationalism on the Pakistan movement: [12]

"It begins with a glorious precolonial state empire when the Muslims of South Asia were politically united and culturally, civilizationally, and strategically dominant. In that era, ethnolinguistic differences were subsumed under a common vision of an Islamic-inspired social and political order. However, the divisions among Muslims that did exist were exploited by the British, who practiced divide and rule politics, displacing the Mughals and circumscribing other Islamic rulers. Moreover, the Hindus were the allies of the British, who used them to strike a balance with the Muslims; many Hindus, a fundamentally insecure people, hated Muslims and would have oppressed them in a one-man, one-vote democratic India. The Pakistan freedom movement united these disparate pieces of the national puzzle, and Pakistan was the expression of the national will of India's liberated Muslims."

Khyber Pakhtunkhwa

Further information: Provincial Assembly of Khyber Pakhtunkhwa

In NWFP, the Muslim League faced its hardest challenge yet. It had intense competition from Khan Abdul Ghaffar Khan dubbed as the "Frontier Gandhi" due to his efforts in following in the footsteps of Gandhi. The popularity of the Congress, along with the strong Paktoon identity created by Ghaffar Khan in the cultural and the political arenas made life hard for the Muslim League. With the support of Ghaffar Khan, the Congress was able to contain the Muslim League to the non-Pakhtoon areas, particularly, the Hazara region. The Muslim League could only manage to win 17 seats, against the 30 won by Congress, in the 1946 elections.

Conclusion

Further information: Partition of India and Indian Independence Act 1947

Muslim nationalism became evident in the provinces where the Muslim minorities resided as they faced social and political marginalization. The desire of the significant Muslim minorities to for self government and self determination, became obvious when a clause in the Lahore Resolution which stated that "constituent units (of the states to come) shall be autonomous and sovereign" was not respected. The Two-Nation Theory became more and more obvious during the congress rule. In 1946, the Muslim majorities agreed to the idea of Pakistan, as a response to Congress's one sided policies, which were also the result of leaders like Jinnah leaving the party in favour of Muslim League, winning in seven of the 11 provinces. Prior to 1938, Bengal with 33 million Muslims had only ten representatives, less than the United Provinces of Agra and Oudh, which were home to only seven million Muslims. Thus the creation of Pakistan became inevitable and the British had no choice but to create two separate nations, Pakistan and India, in 1947. [16][17][18][19]

According to Pakistan Studies curriculum, Muhammad bin Qasim is often referred to as the first Pakistani. [20] Muhammad Ali Jinnah also acclaimed the Pakistan movement to have started when the first Muslim put a foot in the Gateway of Islam. [21]

Non-Muslims contribution and efforts

Jinnah's vision also benefited the Hindus, Sikhs, Parsis, Jews and Christians existed lived in the Muslim dominated regions of undivided India. [22][23] Most notable and extremely influential Hindu figure in Pakistan Movement was Jogendra Nath Mandal from Bengal, and Jagannath Azad from the Urdu-speaking belt. [24] Mandal represented the Hindu representation calling for independent state of Pakistan, and was one of the Founding-fathers of Pakistan. [22] After the independence, Mandal was given ministries of Law, Justice, and Work-Force by Jinnah in Liaquat Ali Khan's government. [22]

The Christian composition also stand behind Jinnah's vision, playing a pivotal role in the movement. The notable Christians included Sir Victor Turner and Alvin Robert Cornelius. Turner was responsible for carrying the economic, financial planning of the country, after gaining the independence. Turner was among one of the founding fathers of Pakistan, and guided Jinnah and Ali Khan on economic affairs, taxation and to handle the administrative units. Alvin Robert Cornelius was elevated as Chief Justice of Lahore High Court bench by Jinnah and served as Law secretary in Liaquat Ali Khan's government. The Hindu, Christian, and Parsi communities had also played their due role for the development of Pakistan soon after its creation.

Timeline

- 1849 Annexation of the Punjab
- 1850 Introduction of Urdu in Punjab (almost all of west Pakistan excluding Sindh)
- 1857 War of Independence
- 1885 Formation of the Indian National Congress
- 1901 Partition of Punjab
- 1905 Partition of Bengal
- 1906 Simla Deputation
- 1906 Founding of the All-India Muslim League
- 1909 Minto-Morley Reforms
- 1911 Annulment of the Partition of Bengal
- 1914-18 World War I
- 1916 Lucknow Pact
- 1919 Jallianwala Bagh Massacre
- 1919 Montagu-Chelmsford Reforms
- 1919-23 Khilafat Movement
- 1922-29 Hindu-Muslim Riots
- 1927 Delhi Muslim Proposals
- 1928 Nehru Report
- 1929 Fourteen Points of Jinnah
- 1930 Simon Commission Report
- 1930 Separation of a strong Punjabi group from congress and formation of Majlis-e-Ahrar-ul-Islam
- 1930 Allama Iqbal Address

- 1931 Kashmir Resistance movement
- 1930-32 Round Table Conferences
- 1932 Communal Award (1932)
- 1933 Pakistan National Movement
- 1933 Now or Never Pamphlet
- 1935 Government of India Act
- 1937 Elections
- 1937-39 Congress Rule in 7 out of 11 Provinces
- 1937 Strong anti congress governments in Punjab and Bengal
- 1938 A. K. Fazlul Huq of Bengal joined Muslim League
- 1938 Jinah Sikandar pact
- 1938 Pirpur Report
- 1939-45 World War II
- 1939 Resignation of congress ministries and non congress power players got golden chance
- 1940 Pakistan Resolution
- 1940 March 19 Khaksar Massacre in Lahore [27][28]
- 1942 Quit India Movement and non congress players further got space
- 1942 Cripps' mission
- 1944 Gandhi Jinnah Talks
- 1945 The Simla Conference
- 1946 The Cabinet Mission the last British effort to united India
- 1946 Direct Action Day in the aftermath of cabinet mission plan
- 1946 Interim Government installed in office
- 1946 Quit Kashmir Campaign as the formation of the interim government of Azad Kashmir
- 1947 June 3 Partition Plan
- 1947 Creation of Pakistan

Notable quotations

Allama Iqbal

I would like to see the Punjab, North-West Frontier Province, Sind and Baluchistan amalgamated into a single State. Self-government within the British Empire, or without the British Empire, the formation of a consolidated North-West Indian Muslim State appears to me to be the final destiny of the Muslims, at least of North-West India.

Choudhary Rahmat Ali

At this solemn hour in the history of India, when British and Indian statesmen are laying the foundations of a Federal Constitution for that land, we address this appeal to you, in the name of our common heritage, on behalf of our thirty million Muslim brethren who live in *Pakistan* - by which we mean the five Northern units of India, Viz: Punjab, North-West Frontier Province (Afghan Province), Kashmir, Sind and Baluchistan - for your sympathy and support in our grim and fateful struggle against political crucifixion and complete annihilation. [11]

Muhammad Ali Jinnah

It is extremely difficult to appreciate why our Hindu friends fail to understand the real nature of Islam and Hinduism. They are not religious in the strict sense of the word, but are, in fact, different and distinct social orders, and it is a dream that the Hindus and Muslims can ever evolve a common nationality, and this misconception of one Indian nation has troubles and will lead India to destruction if we fail to revise our notions in time. The Hindus and Muslims belong to two different religious philosophies, social customs, literatures. They neither intermarry nor interdine together and, indeed, they belong to two different civilizations which are based mainly on conflicting ideas and conceptions. Their aspect on life and of life are different. It is quite clear that Hindus and Mussalmans derive their inspiration from different sources of history. They have different epics, different heroes, and different episodes. Very often the hero of one is a foe of the other and, likewise, their victories and defeats overlap. To yoke together two such nations under a single state, one as a numerical minority and the other as a majority, must lead to growing discontent and final destruction of any fabric that may be so built for the government of such a state."

[30]

[31]

Leaders and Founding Fathers

- Muhammad Ali Jinnah
- Allama Muhammad Iqbal
- · Liaquat Ali Khan
- Aga Khan III
- · Muhammad Zafarullah Khan
- Ghulam Bhik Nairang
- Huseyn Shaheed Suhrawardy
- Khwaja Nazimuddin
- Nawab Viqar-ul-Mulk
- Chaudhry Naseer Ahmad Malhi
- · Maulana Zafar Ali Khan
- · Jogendra Nath Mandal
- Victor Turner
- · Ra'ana Liaquat Ali Khan
- Alvin Robert Cornelius

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Pakistan Movement 32

External links

• "Pakistan Movement Workers Trust -(Tehrik-i-Pakistan) تحریک پاکستان (http://www.pakistanmovement.org). Pakistan Movement Workers Trust's official website.

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Wars

Indo-Pakistani War of 1947

The **India-Pakistan War of 1947-48**, sometimes known as the **First Kashmir War**, was fought between India and Pakistan over the princely state of Kashmir and Jammu from 1947 to 1948. It was the first of four wars fought between the two newly independent nations. The result of the war still affects the geopolitics of both the countries.

The war was initially fought by the forces of the princely state and tribal militias from the Khyber Pakhtunkhwa and Federally Administered Tribal Areas.^[1] Facing the assault and a Muslim revolution in the Poonch and Mirpur area,^{[1][2]} the ruler of princely state of Kashmir and Jammu signed an Instrument of Accession to the Indian union. Indian and Pakistani armies entered the war subsequently.^[1] The fronts solidified gradually along what came to be known as the Line of Control. A formal cease-fire was declared at 2359 hours on the night of 1/2 January 1949.^{[3]:379}

Background

Prior to 1815 the area now known as "Jammu and Kashmir" comprised 22 small independent states (16 Hindu and 6 Muslim) carved out of territories controlled by the Afghanistan Amir (King) combined with those of local small rulers. These were collectively referred to as the "Punjab Hill States". These small states, ruled by Rajput kings, were variously independent, vassals of the Mughal Empire since the time of Emperor Akbar or sometimes controlled from Kangra state in the Himachal area. Following the decline of the Mughals, turbulence in Kangra and Gorkha invasions, the hill states fell one by one under the dominance of the Sikhs under Ranjit Singh. [4]:536

The First Anglo-Sikh War (1845–46) was fought between the Sikh Empire, which asserted sovereignty over Kashmir, and the East India Company. In the Treaty of Lahore in 1846, the Sikhs were made to surrender the valuable region (the Jullundur Doab) between the Beas River and Sutlej River and required to pay an indemnity of 1.2 million rupees. Because they could not readily raise this sum, the East India Company allowed the Dogra ruler Gulab Singh to acquire Kashmir from the Sikh kingdom in exchange for making a payment of 750,000 rupees to the East India Company. Gulab Singh became the first Maharaja of the newly formed princely state of Jammu and Kashmir, founding a dynasty, that was to rule the state, the second-largest principality during the British Raj, until India gained its independence in 1947.

Partition of India

Before and after the withdrawal of the British from India in 1947, the princely state of Kashmir and Jammu came under pressure from both India and Pakistan to agree to become part of one of the newly independent countries. According to the instruments of accession relating to the Partition of India, the rulers of princely states were to be given the choice of either acceding to India or Pakistan. However, the Maharaja of Kashmir, Hari Singh tried to avoid accession to either country. Following a Muslim revolution in the Poonch and Mirpur area and an allegedly Pakistani backed Pashtun tribal intervention from the Khyber Pakhtunkhwa that aimed at supporting the revolution, the Maharaja asked for Indian military assistance. India set a condition that Kashmir must accede to India for it to receive assistance. The Maharaja complied, and the Government of India recognized the accession of the erstwhile princely state to India. Indian troops were sent to the state to defend it. The Jammu & Kashmir National Conference volunteers aided the Indian Army in its campaign to drive out the Pathan invaders.

Pakistan was of the view that the Maharaja of Kashmir had no right to call in the Indian Army, because it held that the Maharaja of Kashmir was not a heredity ruler, that he was merely a British appointee after the British defeated

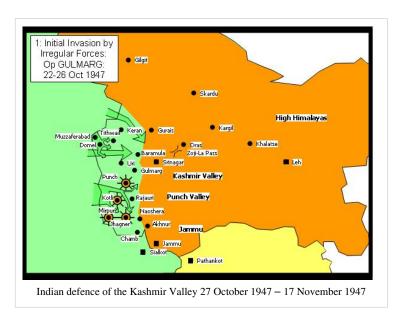
Indo-Pakistani War of 1947 35

Ranjit Singh who ruled the province before the British.^[5] There had been no such position as the "Maharaja of Kashmir" prior to British rule. Hence Pakistan decided to take action, but the Army Chief of Pakistan General Douglas Gracey did not send troops to the Kashmir front and refused to obey the order to do so given by Muhammad Ali Jinnah, Governor-General of Pakistan. Gracey justified his insubordination by arguing that Indian forces occupying Kashmir represented the British Crown and hence he could not engage in a military encounter with Indian forces. Pakistan finally did manage to send troops to Kashmir but by then the Indian forces had taken control of approximately two thirds of the former principality. The Gilgit and Baltistan territories were secured for Pakistan by the Gilgit Scouts and the forces of the state of Chitral, another princely state that had acceded to Pakistan.

Stages of the war^[10]

Initial invasion

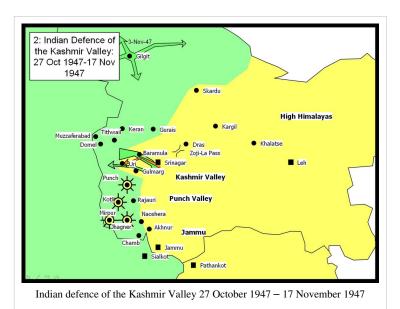
The state forces stationed in the border regions around Muzaffarabad and Domel were quickly defeated by tribal forces (some state forces mutinied and joined them) and the way to the capital was open. Rather than advancing toward Srinagar before state forces could regroup or be reinforced, the invading forces remained in the captured cities in the border region engaging in looting and other crimes against their inhabitants. [11] In the Poonch valley, the state forces retreated into towns where they were besieged.



Indian operation in the Kashmir Valley

After the accession, India airlifted troops and equipment to Srinagar, where they reinforced the princely state forces, established a defence perimeter and defeated the tribal forces on the outskirts of the city. The successful defence included an outflanking manoeuvre by Indian armoured cars. The defeated tribal forces were pursued as far as Baramulla and Uri and these towns were recaptured.

In the Poonch valley, tribal forces continued to besiege state forces.

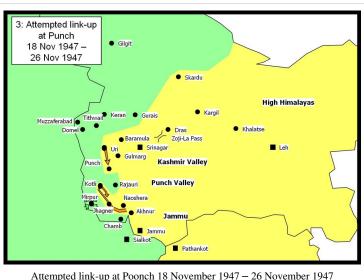


In Gilgit, the state paramilitary forces, called the Gilgit Scouts, joined the invading tribal forces, who thereby obtained control of this northern region of the state. The tribal forces were also joined by troops from Chitral, whose

ruler, the Mehtar of Chitral, had acceded to Pakistan.

Attempted link-up at Poonch and fall of Mirpur

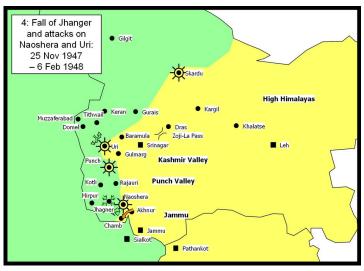
Indian forces ceased pursuit of tribal forces after recapturing Uri and Baramula, and sent a relief column southwards, in an attempt to relieve Poonch. Although the relief column eventually reached Poonch, the siege could not be lifted. A second relief column reached Kotli, and evacuated the garrisons of that town and others but were forced to abandon it being too weak to defend it. Meanwhile, Mirpur was captured by the tribal forces on 25 November 1947.



Attempted link-up at Poonch 18 November 1947 – 26 November 1947

Fall of Jhanger and attacks on Naoshera and Uri

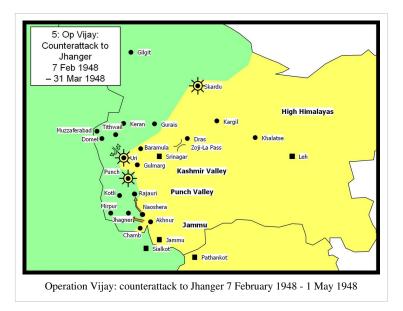
The tribal forces attacked and captured Jhanger. They then attacked Naoshera unsuccessfully, and made a series of unsuccessful attacks on Uri. In the south a minor Indian attack secured Chamb. By this stage of the war the front line began to stabilize as more Indian troops became available.



Fall of Jhanger and attacks on Naoshera and Uri 25 November 1947 - 6 February 1948

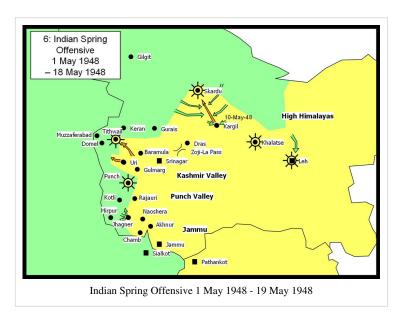
Operation Vijay: counterattack to Jhanger

The Indian forces launched a counterattack in the south recapturing Jhanger and Rajauri. In the Kashmir Valley the tribal forces continued attacking the Uri garrison. In the north Skardu was brought under siege by the Gilgit scouts.



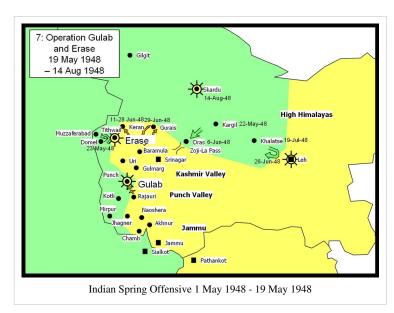
Indian Spring Offensive

The Indians held onto Jhanger against numerous counterattacks, who were increasingly supported by regular Pakistani Forces. In the Kashmir Valley the Indians attacked, recapturing Tithwail. The Gilgit scouts made good progress in the High Himalayas sector, infiltrating troops to bring Leh under siege, capturing Kargil and defeating a relief column heading for Skardu.



Operations Gulab and Eraze

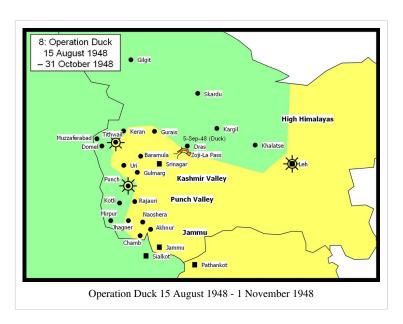
The Indians continued to attack in the Kashmir Valley sector driving north to capture Keran and Gurais (Operation Eraze)[3]:308-324. They also repelled a counterattack aimed at Tithwal. In the Jammu region, the forces besieged in Poonch broke out and temporarily linked up with the outside world again. The Kashmir State army was able to defend Skardu from the Gilgit Scouts impeding their advance down the Indus valley towards Leh. In August the Chitral Forces Mata-ul-Mulk besieged Skardu and with the help of artillery were able to take Skardu.



This freed the Gilgit Scouts to push further into Ladakh.

Operation Bison

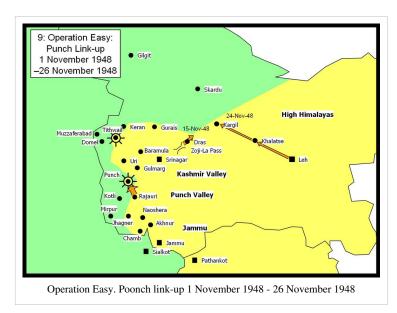
During this time the front began to settle down. The siege of Poonch continued. An unsuccessful attack was launched by 77 Parachute Brigade (Brig Atal) to capture Zoji La pass. Operation Duck, the earlier epithet for this assault, was renamed as Operation Bison by Cariappa. M5 Stuart light tanks of 7 Cavalry were moved in dismantled conditions through Srinagar and winched across bridges while two field companies of the Madras Sappers converted the mule track across Zoji La into a jeep track. The surprise attack on 1 November by the brigade with armour supported by two



regiments of 25 pounders and a regiment of 3.7 inch guns, forced the pass and pushed the tribal/Pakistani forces back to Matayan and later Dras. The brigade linked up on 24 November at Kargil with Indian troops advancing from Leh while their opponents eventually withdrew northwards toward Skardu. [12]:103-127

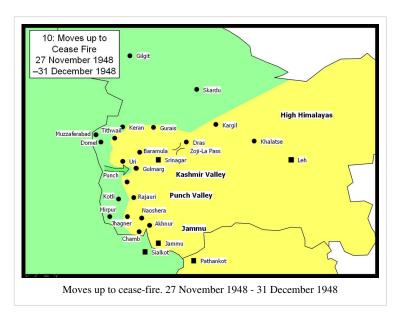
Operation Easy; Poonch link-up

The Indians now started to get the upper hand in all sectors. Poonch was finally relieved after a siege of over a year. The Gilgit forces in the High Himalayas, who had previously made good progress, were finally defeated. The Indians pursued as far as Kargil before being forced to halt due to supply problems. The Zoji La pass was forced by using tanks (which had not been thought possible at that altitude) and Dras was recaptured.



Moves up to cease-fire

At this stage Indian Prime Minister Jawaharlal Nehru decided to ask UN to intervene. A UN cease-fire was arranged for the 31 December 1948. A few days before the cease-fire the Pakistanis launched a counter attack, which cut the road between Uri and Poonch. After protracted negotiations a cease-fire was agreed to by both countries, which came into effect. The terms of the cease-fire as laid out in a United Nations resolution^[13] of August 13, 1948, were adopted by the UN on January 5, 1949. This required Pakistan to withdraw its forces, both regular and irregular, while



allowing India to maintain minimum strength of its forces in the state to preserve law and order. On compliance of these conditions a plebiscite was to be held to determine the future of the territory. In all, 1,500 soldiers died on each side during the war^[14] and Pakistan was able to acquire roughly two-fifths of Kashmir, including five of the fourteen eight thousanders plus peaks of the world, while India maintained the remaining three fifths of Kashmir, including the most populous and fertile regions.

Indo-Pakistani War of 1947 40

Military awards

Battle honours

After the war, a total of number of 11 battle honours and one theatre honour were awarded to units of the Indian Army, the notable amongst which are:^[15]

- Jammu and Kashmir 1947-48 (theatre honour) Naoshera Srinagar
- Gurais
 Punch
 Tithwal
- Kargil Rajouri Zoji La

Gallantry awards

For bravery, a number of soldiers and officers were awarded the highest gallantry award of their respective countries. Following is a list of the recipients of the Indian award Param Vir Chakra, and the Pakistani award Nishan-E-Haider:

India

- Major Som Nath Sharma (Posthumous)
- · Lance Naik Karam Singh
- · Second Lieutenant Rama Raghoba Rane
- · Jadu Nath Singh
- · Company Havildar Major Piru Singh Shekhawat

Pakistan

· Captain Muhammad Sarwar Shaheed

Notes

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- [3] Prasad, S.N.; Dharm Pal (1987). *History of Operations In Jammu and Kashmir 1947-1948*. New Delhi: History Department, Ministry of Defence, Government of India. (printed at Thomson Press (India) Limited). pp. 418..
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- $[5] \ Srinagar (http://www.bl.uk/onlinegallery/onlineex/apac/photocoll/g/019pho000000394u00076000.html)\ www.collectbritain.co.uk.$
- [6] Article 2.4 of the Indian Independence Act.
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The template Jammu and Kashmir freedom movement is being considered for deletion.

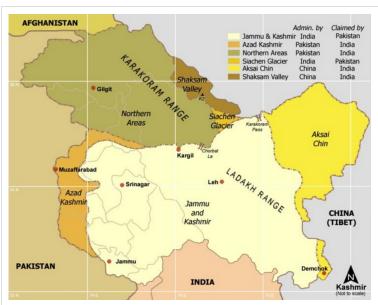
Partition of India

Kashmir conflict

The **Kashmir conflict** (Hindi: कश्मीर विवाद, Urdu: مسئلاً کشمیر) is a territorial dispute between India and Pakistan over the Kashmir region, the northwestern most region of South Asia.

India claims the entire state of Jammu and Kashmir and as of 2010, administers approximately 43% of the region, including most of Jammu, the Kashmir Valley, Ladakh, and the Siachen Glacier. India's claims are contested by Pakistan, which controls approximately 37% of Kashmir, namely Azad Kashmir and the northern areas of Gilgit and Baltistan.

India has officially stated that it believes that Kashmir is an integral part of India, though the Prime Minister of India, Manmohan Singh, stated after the 2010 Kashmir Unrest that his government is



The disputed areas of the region of Kashmir. India claims the entire erstwhile princely state of Jammu and Kashmir based on an instrument of accession signed in 1947. Pakistan claims all areas of the erstwhile state except for those claimed by China. China claims the Shaksam Valley and Aksai Chin.

willing to grant autonomy within the purview of Indian constitution to Kashmir if there is consensus on this issue. Pakistan maintains that Kashmir is the "jugular vein of Pakistan" and a currently disputed territory whose final status must be determined by the people of Kashmir. China states that Aksai Chin is a part of China and does not recognize the addition of Aksai Chin to the Kashmir region. Certain Kashmiri independence groups believe that Kashmir should be independent of both India and Pakistan.

India and Pakistan have fought at least three wars over Kashmir, including the Indo-Pakistani Wars of 1947, 1965 and 1999. India and Pakistan have also been involved in several skirmishes over the Siachen Glacier.

Since 1987, a disputed State election^[3] has resulted in some of the state's legislative assembly forming militant wings, creating a catalyst for insurgency. ^{[4][5][6]} The Indian-administered Jammu and Kashmir has been the site of conflict between the Indian Armed Forces, militants, and separatists. India has furnished documentary evidence to the United Nations that these militants are supported by Pakistan, leading to a ban on some terrorist organisations, which Pakistan has yet to enforce. The turmoil in Jammu and Kashmir has resulted in thousands of deaths, ^[7] but has become less deadly in recent years. ^{[8][9]} There have been protest movements in Indian Administered Kashmir since 1989. The movements were created to voice Kashmir's disputes and grievances with the Indian government, specifically the Indian Military. ^{[8][9]} Elections held in 2008 were generally regarded as fair by the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees, had a high voter turnout in spite of calls by militants for a boycott, and led to the pro-India Jammu & Kashmir National Conference forming the government in the state. ^{[10][11]} According to Voice of America, many analysts have interpreted the high voter turnout in this election as a sign that the people of Kashmir have endorsed Indian rule in the state. ^[12] However Sajjad Lone, a prominent separatist leader in Kashmir, claims

that "the high turnout should not be taken as a sign that Kashmiris no longer want independence.^[12] Altaf Ahmad, a separatist activist of the Jammu and Kashmir Liberation Front, said, "The whole of Kashmir nation is standing against these elections, because these elections are not as India claims in the United Nations, that people of Kashmir are representing themselves in these elections, that this is the self determination," ^[13] In 2009 and 2010 unrest erupted again.

Timeline

Early history

According to folk etymology, the name "Kashmir" means "desiccated land" (from the Sanskrit: Ka = water and shimeera = desiccate). In the Rajatarangini, a **history of Kashmir** written by Kalhana in the mid-12th century, it is stated that the valley of Kashmir was formerly a lake. According to Hindu mythology, the lake was drained by the saptarishi or sage, Kashyapa, son of Marichi, son of Brahma, by cutting the gap in the hills at Baramulla (Varaha-mula). When Kashmir had been drained, Kashyapa asked Brahmans to settle there. This is still the local tradition, and in the existing physical condition of the country, we may see some ground for the story which has taken this form. The name of Kashyapa is by history and tradition connected with the draining of the lake, and the chief town or collection of dwellings in the valley was called Kashyapa-pura, which has been identified with Kaspapyros of Hecataeus (apud Stephanus of Byzantium) and Kaspatyros of Herodotus (3.102, 4.44). [14] Kashmir is also believed to be the country meant by Ptolemy's Kaspeiria.

However an earlier and well known recorded reference can be found in the writings of a Tibetan Buddhist monk in the 6th Century. Hsien Tsang referred to a state called 'Kash-mi-lo' that had existed in the 1st century.

In the 18th century, Kashmir was ruled by the Pashtun Durrani Empire. In 1819, Kashmir was conquered by the Sikh ruler Ranjit Singh. Following the First Anglo-Sikh War in 1845 and 1846, Kashmir was first ceded by the Treaty of Lahore to the East India Company, and shortly after sold by the Treaty of Amritsar to Gulab Singh, Raja of Jammu, who thereafter was given the title Maharaja of Jammu and Kashmir. From then until the Partition of India in 1947, Kashmir was ruled by the Hindu Maharajas of the princely state of Kashmir and Jammu, although the majority of the population were Muslim, except in the Jammu and Ladakh region.

Partition and dispute

In 1947, British rule in India ended with the creation of two new nations: the Union of India and the Dominion of Pakistan, while British suzerainty over the 562 Indian princely states ended. According to the Indian Independence Act 1947, "the suzerainty of His Majesty over the Indian States lapses, and with it, all treaties and agreements in force at the date of the passing of this Act between His Majesty and the rulers of Indian States", [16] so the states were left to choose whether to join India or Pakistan or to remain independent. Jammu and Kashmir, the largest of the princely states, had a predominantly Muslim population, while having a Hindu ruler (Maharaja Hari Singh.) On partition Pakistan expected Kashmir to be annexed to it.

In October 1947, Muslim revolutionaries in western Kashmir^[17] and Pakistani tribals from Dir entered Kashmir, intending to liberate it from Dogra rule. Unable to withstand the invasion, the Maharaja signed the Instrument of Accession on 25 October 1947^[18] that was accepted by the government of India on 27 October 1947. [19][20]

Indo-Pakistani War of 1947

After rumours that the Maharaja supported the annexation of Kashmir by India, militant Muslim revolutionaries from western Kashmir^[17] and Pakistani tribesmen made rapid advances into the Baramulla sector. Maharaja Hari Singh of Kashmir asked the government of India to intervene. However, India and Pakistan had signed an agreement of non-intervention. Although tribal fighters from Pakistan had entered Jammu and Kashmir, there was no iron-clad legal evidence to unequivocally prove that Pakistan was officially involved. It would have been illegal for India to

unilaterally intervene in an open, official capacity unless Jammu and Kashmir officially joined the Union of India, at which point it would be possible to send in its forces and occupy the remaining parts.

The Maharaja desperately needed military assistance when the Pakistani tribals reached the outskirts of Srinagar. Before their arrival into Srinagar, India argued that the Maharaja must complete negotiations for ceding Jammu and Kashmir to India in exchange for receiving military aid. The agreement which ceded Jammu and Kashmir to India was signed by the Maharaja and Lord Mountbatten of Burma. In Jammu and Kashmir, National Conference volunteers worked with the Indian Army to drive out the Pakistanis.



The Instrument of Accession of Kashmir to India was accepted by Viceroy Louis Mountbatten, 1st Earl Mountbatten of Burma.

The resulting war over Kashmir, the First Kashmir War, lasted until 1948, when India moved the issue to the UN Security Council. Sheikh Abdullah was not in favor of India seeking UN intervention because he was sure the Indian Army could free the entire State of invaders. [21] The UN had previously passed resolutions for setting up monitoring of the conflict in Kashmir. Following the set-up of the United Nations Military Observer Group in India and Pakistan (UNCIP), the UN Security Council passed Resolution 47 on 21 April 1948. The resolution imposed an immediate cease-fire and called on Pakistan to withdraw all military presence. The resolution stated that Pakistan would have no say in Jammu and Kashmir politics. India would retain a minimum military presence and "the final disposition of the State of Jammu and Kashmir will be made in accordance with the will of the people expressed through the democratic method of a free and impartial plebiscite conducted under the auspices of the United Nations." The ceasefire was enacted on 31 December 1948.

The Indian and Pakistani governments agreed to hold the plebiscite, but Pakistan did not withdraw its troops from Kashmir, thus violating the conditions for holding the plebiscite.^[22] In addition, the Indian

Government distanced itself from its commitment to hold a plebiscite.^[22] Over the next several years, the UN Security Council passed four new resolutions, revising the terms of Resolution 47 to include a synchronous withdrawal of both Indian and Pakistani troops from the region, per the recommendations of General Andrew McNaughton. To this end, UN arbitrators put forward 11 different proposals for the demilitarization of the region. All of these were accepted by Pakistan, but rejected by the Indian government.^[23] The resolutions were passed by United Nations Security Council under Chapter VI of the United Nations Charter.^[24] Resolutions passed under Chapter VI of the UN charter are considered non-binding and have no mandatory enforceability, as opposed to the resolutions passed under Chapter VII.^[25]

Sino-Indian War

In 1962, troops from the People's Republic of China and India clashed in territory claimed by both. China won a swift victory in the war, resulting in the Chinese annexation of the region called Aksai Chin, which has continued as of January 2012. Another smaller area, the Trans-Karakoram, was demarcated as the Line of Control (LOC) between China and Pakistan, although some of the territory on the Chinese side is claimed by India to be part of Kashmir. The line that separates India from China in this region is known as the "Line of Actual Control". [26]

1965 and 1971 wars

In 1965 and 1971, heavy fighting broke out again between India and Pakistan. The Indo-Pakistani War of 1971 resulted in the defeat of Pakistan and the Pakistani military's surrender in East Pakistan, leading to the creation of Bangladesh. The Simla Agreement was signed in 1972 between India and Pakistan. By this treaty, both countries agreed to settle all issues by peaceful means using mutual discussion in the framework of the UN Charter.

1989 popular insurgency and militancy

In the years since 1990, the Kashmiri Muslims and the Indian government have conspired to abolish the complexities of Kashmiri civilization. The world it inhabited has vanished: the state government and the political class, the rule of law, almost all the Hindu inhabitants of the valley, alcohol, cinemas, cricket matches, picnics by moonlight in the saffron fields, schools, universities, an independent press, tourists and banks. In this reduction of civilian reality, the sights of Kashmir are redefined: not the lakes and Mogul gardens, or the storied triumphs of Kashmiri agriculture, handicrafts and cookery, but two entities that confront each other without intermediary: the mosque and the army camp.

— British journalist James Buchan^[27]

In 1989, a widespread popular and armed insurgency^{[28][29]} started in Kashmir. After the 1987 State legislative assembly election, some of the results were disputed. This resulted in the formation of militant wings after the election and was the beginning of the Mujahadeen insurgency, which continues to this day.^[30] India contends that the insurgency was largely started by Afghan mujahadeen who entered the Kashmir valley following the end of the Soviet-Afghan War. Pakistani and Kashmiri nationalists argue that Afghan mujahideen did not leave Afghanistan in large numbers until 1992, three years after the insurgency began.^[31] Yasin Malik, a leader of one faction of the Jammu Kashmir Liberation Front, was one of the Kashmiris to organize militancy in Kashmir, along with Ashfaq Majid Wani and Farooq Ahmad Dar (alias Bitta Karatay). Since 1995, Malik has renounced the use of violence and calls for strictly peaceful methods to resolve the dispute. He developed differences with one of the senior leaders, Farooq Siddiqui (alias Farooq Papa), for shunning the demand for an independent Kashmir and trying to cut a deal with the Indian Prime Minister. This resulted in a spilt in which Bitta Karatay, Salim Nanhaji, and other senior comrades joined Farooq Papa.^{[32][33]} Pakistan claims these insurgents are Jammu and Kashmir citizens, and are rising up against the Indian army in an independence movement. Pakistan accuses the Indian army of committing serious human rights violations in Kashmir. Pakistan denies that it has or currently is supplying weapons and ammunition to the insurgents.

India claims these insurgents are Islamic terrorist groups from Pakistan-administered Kashmir and Afghanistan, fighting to make Jammu and Kashmir, a part of Pakistan. They claim Pakistan is supplying munitions to the terrorists and training them in Pakistan. India states that the terrorists have been killing many citizens in Kashmir and committing human rights violations. They deny that their own armed forces are responsible for human rights abuses. On a visit to Pakistan in 2006 current Chief Minister of Kashmir Omar Abdullah remarked that foreign militants were engaged in reckless killings and mayhem in the name of religion. Indian government has said militancy is now on the decline.

The Pakistani government calls these insurgents "Kashmiri freedom fighters", and claims that it gives only moral and diplomatic support to these insurgents, though India^[36] believes they are Pakistan-supported terrorists from Pakistan Administered Kashmir. In October 2008, President Asif Ali Zardari of Pakistan called the Kashmir separatists, terrorists in an interview with *The Wall Street Journal*.^[37] These comments by Zardari sparked outrage amongst many Kashmiris, some of whom defied a curfew by the Indian army to burn him in effigy.^[38]

In 2008, pro-separation leader Mirwaiz Umar Farooq told the *Washington Post* that there has been a "purely indigenous, purely Kashmiri"^[8] peaceful protest movement alongside the insurgency in Indian-administered Kashmir since 1989. The movement was created for the same reason as the insurgency; it began with the disputed election of 1987. The Kashmiris have grievances with the Indian government, specifically the Indian Military, which has committed human rights violations, according to the United Nations. [8][9][39]

Al-Qaeda involvement

In a 'Letter to American People' written by Osama bin Laden in 2002, he stated that one of the reasons he was fighting America is because of its support of India on the Kashmir issue. [40][41] While on a trip to Delhi in 2002, U.S. Secretary of Defense Donald Rumsfeld suggested that Al-Qaeda was active in Kashmir, though he did not have any hard evidence. [42][43] An investigation in 2002 unearthed evidence that Al-Qaeda and its affiliates were prospering in Pakistan-administered Kashmir with tacit approval of Pakistan's National Intelligence agency Inter-Services Intelligence. [44] A team of Special Air Service and Delta Force was sent into Indian-administered Kashmir in 2002 to hunt for Osama bin Laden after reports that he was being sheltered by the Kashmiri militant group Harkat-ul-Mujahideen. [45] U.S. officials believed that Al-Qaeda was helping organize a campaign of terror in Kashmir in order to provoke conflict between India and Pakistan. Their strategy was to force Pakistan to move its troops to the border with India, thereby relieving pressure on Al-Qaeda elements hiding in northwestern Pakistan. U.S. intelligence analysts say Al-Qaeda and Taliban operatives in Pakistan-administered Kashmir are helping terrorists they had trained in Afghanistan to infiltrate Indian-administered Kashmir. [46] Fazlur Rehman Khalil, the leader of the Harkat-ul-Mujahideen, signed al-Qaeda's 1998 declaration of holy war, which called on Muslims to attack all Americans and their allies. [47] In 2006 Al-Qaeda claim they have established a wing in Kashmir; this worried the Indian government. [48] Indian Army Lt. Gen. H.S. Panag, GOC-in-C Northern Command, said to reporters that the army has ruled out the presence of Al-Qaeda in Indian-administered Jammu and Kashmir. He said that there no evidence that verifies reports from the media of an Al-Qaeda presence in the state. He stated that Al-Qaeda had strong ties with the Kashmir militant groups Lashkar-e-Taiba and Jaish-e-Mohammed in Pakistan. [49] While on a visit to Pakistan in January 2010, U.S. Defense secretary Robert Gates stated that Al-Qaeda was seeking to destabilize the region and planning to provoke a nuclear war between India and Pakistan. [50]

In September 2009, a U.S. Drone strike reportedly killed Ilyas Kashmiri, who was the chief of Harkat-ul-Jihad al-Islami, a Kashmiri militant group associated with Al-Qaeda. [51][52] Kashmiri was described by Bruce Riedel as a 'prominent' Al-Qaeda member, [53] while others described him as the head of military operations for Al-Qaeda. Waziristan had now become the new battlefield for Kashmiri militants, who were now fighting NATO in support of Al-Qaeda. [55] Ilyas Kashmiri was charged by the U.S. in a plot against *Jyllands-Posten*, the Danish newspaper which was at the center of Jyllands-Posten Muhammad cartoons controversy. [56]

Indian Army Lt. Gen. H.S. Panag, GOC-in-C Northern Command told reporters that the army has ruled out the presence of Al-Qaeda in Jammu and Kashmir, and that there is no evidence that confirms an Al Qaeda presence in the state. [57]

Conflict in Kargil

In mid-1999, insurgents and Pakistani soldiers from Pakistani Kashmir infiltrated into Jammu and Kashmir. During the winter season, Indian forces regularly move down to lower altitudes, as severe climatic conditions makes it almost impossible for them to guard the high peaks near the Line of Control. The insurgents took advantage of this and occupied vacant mountain peaks of the Kargil range overlooking the highway in Indian Kashmir that connects Srinagar and Leh. By blocking the highway, they wanted to cut off the only link between the Kashmir Valley and Ladakh. This resulted in a high-scale conflict between the Indian Army and the Pakistan Army.



Fears of the Kargil War turning into a nuclear war provoked the then-United States President Bill Clinton to pressure Pakistan to retreat. Faced with mounting losses of personnel and posts, the Pakistan Army withdrew their remaining troops from the area, ending the conflict. India reclaimed control of the peaks, which they now patrol and monitor all year long.

Reasons behind the dispute

The Kashmir Conflict arises from the Partition of British India in 1947 into modern India and Pakistan. Both the countries have made claims to Kashmir, based on historical developments and religious affiliations of the Kashmiri people. The state of Jammu and Kashmir, which lies strategically in the north-west of the subcontinent, bordering Afghanistan and China, was a princely state ruled by Maharaja Hari Singh under the paramountcy of British India. In geographical and legal terms, the Maharaja could have joined either of the two new Dominions. Although urged by the Viceroy, Lord Mountbatten of Burma, to determine the future of his state before the transfer of power took place, Singh demurred. In October 1947, incursions by Pakistan took place leading to a war, as a result of which the state of Jammu and Kashmir remains divided between the two countries.

Administered by	Area	Population	% Muslim	% Hindu	% Buddhist	% Other
India	Kashmir valley	~4 million	95%	4%	_	_
	Jammu	~3 million	30%	66%	_	4%
	Ladakh	~0.25 million	46% (Shia)	_	50%	3%
Pakistan	Northern Areas	~1 million	99%	_	_	_
	Azad Kashmir	~2.6 million	100%	_	_	_
China	Aksai Chin	_	_	_	_	_

- Statistics from the BBC report. In Depth ^[58] *There are roughly 1.5 million refugees from Indian-administered Kashmir in Pakistan administered Kashmir and Pakistan UNHCR ^[59]
- About 300,000 Hindus in Indian Administered Kashmir valley are internally displaced due to militancy in Kashmir CIA
- Muslims are the majority in Poonch, Rajouri, Kishtwar, and Doda districts in Jammu region. Shia Muslims make up the majority in Kargil district in Ladakh region.
- India does not accept the two-nation theory and considers that Kashmir, despite being a Muslim-majority state, is in many ways an "integral part" of secular India.

Two-thirds of the former princely state (known as the Indian state of Jammu and Kashmir), comprising Jammu, the Kashmir Valley, and the sparsely populated Buddhist area of Ladakh are controlled by India; one-third is administered by Pakistan. The latter includes a narrow strip of land called Azad Kashmir and the Northern Areas, compromising the Gilgit Agency, Baltistan, and the former kingdoms of Hunza and Nagar. Attempts to resolve the dispute through political discussions were unsuccessful. In September 1965, war broke out again between Pakistan and India. The United Nations called for another cease-fire, and peace was restored once again following the Tashkent Declaration in 1966, by which both nations returned to their original positions along the demarcated line. After the 1971 war and the creation of independent Bangladesh, under the terms of the 1972 Simla Agreement between Prime Minister Indira Gandhi of India and Zulfiqar Ali Bhutto of Pakistan, it was agreed that neither country would seek to alter the cease-fire line in Kashmir, which was renamed as the Line of Control, "unilaterally, irrespective of mutual differences and legal interpretations".

Numerous violations of the Line of Control have occurred, including the incursions by insurgents and Pakistani armed forces at Kargil leading to the Kargil war. There are also sporadic clashes on the Siachen Glacier, where the Line of Control is not demarcated and both countries maintain forces at altitudes rising to 20000 ft (**unknown operator: u'strong'** m), with the Indian forces serving at higher altitudes.

Indian view

The Indian viewpoint is succinctly summarized by Ministry of External affairs, Government of India^{[59][60]}—

• India holds that the Instrument of Accession of the State of Jammu and Kashmir to the Union of India, signed by Maharaja Hari Singh (erstwhile ruler of the State) on 25 October 1947^{[61][62]} & executed on 27 October 1947^[62] between the ruler of Kashmir and the Governor General of India was a legal act, was completely valid in terms of the Government of India Act (1935), Indian Independence Act (1947) and international law and was total and irrevocable.^[60] There is no evidence of any deceit practiced by India on Kashmir. The Government of India had no right to question the right of the Maharaja to sign the Instrument of Accession, as he alone had the right and power to take a decision for his state. To have asked the



Maharaja Hari Singh signed the Instrument of Accession in October 1947 under which he acceded the State of Jammu and Kashmir to the Union of India.

ruler to establish his right to sign the Instrument of Accession would have meant that the Government of India was going to meddle with the internal policies of the state. Law does not permit any such intervention in the affairs of another state. [62]

- The Constituent assembly of Jammu and Kashmir had unanimously ratified the Maharaja's Instrument of Accession to India and had adopted a constitution for the state that called for a perpetual merger of Jammu and Kashmir with the Union of India. India claims that the Constituent assembly was a representative one, and that its views were those of the Kashmiri people at the time. [21][63]
- United Nations Security Council Resolution 1172 tacitly accepts India's stand regarding all outstanding issues
 between India and Pakistan and urges the need to resolve the dispute through mutual dialogue and does not call
 for a plebiscite. [64]
- United Nations Security Council Resolution 47 cannot be implemented since Pakistan failed to withdraw its forces from Kashmir, which was the first step in implementing the resolution. [65] India is also of the view that Resolution 47 is obsolete, since the geography and demographics of the region have been permanently altered. [66] The resolution was passed by United Nations Security Council under Chapter VI of the United Nations Charter. It is therefore non-binding and has no mandatory enforceability, as opposed to the resolutions passed under Chapter VII. [24][25]
- India does not accept the two-nation theory that forms the basis of Pakistan and considers that Kashmir, despite being a Muslim-majority state, is in many ways an "integral part" of secular India. [58]
- The state of Jammu and Kashmir was provided significant autonomy in Article 370 of the Constitution of India. [67]
- All differences between India and Pakistan, including Kashmir, need to be settled through bilateral negotiations as agreed to by the two countries when they signed the Simla Agreement on 2 July 1972. [68]

Additional Indian viewpoints regarding the broader debate over the Kashmir conflict include —

- In a diverse country like India, disaffection and discontent are not uncommon. Indian democracy has the
 necessary resilience to accommodate genuine grievances within the framework of India's sovereignty, unity, and
 integrity. The Government of India has expressed its willingness to accommodate the legitimate political demands
 of the people of the state of Kashmir.^[59]
- Insurgency and terrorism in Kashmir is deliberately being fueled by Pakistan to create instability in the region. The Government of India has repeatedly accused Pakistan of waging a proxy war in Kashmir by providing weapons and financial assistance to terrorist groups in the region. [70][71][72][73]
- Pakistan is trying to raise anti-India sentiment among the people of Kashmir by spreading false propaganda against India.^[74] According to the state government of Jammu and Kashmir, Pakistani radio and television

- channels deliberately spread "hate and venom" against India to alter Kashmiri opinion. [75]
- India has asked the United Nations not to leave unchallenged or unaddressed the claims of moral, political, and diplomatic support for terrorism, which were clearly in contravention of United Nations Security Council Resolution 1373. This is a Chapter VII resolution that makes it mandatory for member states to not provide active or passive support to terrorist organizations. [76][77] Specifically, it has pointed out that the Pakistani government continues to support various terrorist organizations, such as Jaish-e-Mohammad and Lashkar-e-Taiba, in direct violation of this resolution. [78]
- India points out reports by human rights organizations condemning Pakistan for the lack of civic liberties in Pakistan-administered Kashmir. [74][79] According to India, most regions of Pakistani Kashmir, especially Northern Areas, continue to suffer from lack of political recognition, economic development, and basic fundamental rights. [80]
- Dr Karan Singh, the state's first and last sadar-e-riyast and son of the last Dogra ruler of Jammu and Kashmir Maharaja Hari Singh said that the Instrument of Accession signed by Maharaja Hari Singh was the same as signed by other states; however the state had its own separate constitution. That is why the state has special status and Article 370. With the signing of Instrument of Accession, it became an integral part of India. [81]

Pakistani view

Pakistan's claims to the disputed region are based on the rejection of Indian claims to Kashmir, namely the Instrument of Accession. Pakistan insists that the Maharaja was not a popular leader, and was regarded as a tyrant by most Kashmiris. Pakistan maintains that the Maharaja used brute force to suppress the population. Pakistan accuses India of hypocrisy, as it refused to recognize the accession of Junagadh to Pakistan and Hyderabad's independence, on the grounds that those two states had Hindu majorities (in fact, India had occupied and forcibly integrated those two territories). Since he had fled Kashmir due to Pakistani invasion, Pakistan asserts that the Maharaja held no authority in determining Kashmir's future. Pakistan argues that even if the Maharaja had any authority in determining the plight of Kashmir, he signed the Instrument of Accession under duress, thus invalidating the legitimacy of his actions.

Pakistan claims that Indian forces were in Kashmir before the Instrument of Accession was signed with India, and that therefore Indian troops were in Kashmir in violation of the Standstill Agreement, which was designed to maintain the status quo in Kashmir (although India was not signatory to the Agreement, which was signed between Pakistan and the Hindu ruler of Jammu and Kashmir). [84][85]

From 1990 to 1999, some organizations reported that the Indian Armed Forces, its paramilitary groups, and counter-insurgent militias were responsible for the deaths of 4,501 Kashmiri civilians. Also from 1990 to 1999, there were records of 4,242 women between the ages of 7–70 being raped. [86][87] Similar allegations were also made by some human rights organizations. [88]

In short, Pakistan holds that:

- The popular Kashmiri insurgency demonstrates that the Kashmiri people no longer wish to remain within India. Pakistan suggests that this means that Kashmir either wants to be with Pakistan or independent.^[89]
- According to the two-nation theory, which is one of the theories that is cited for the partition that created India and Pakistan, Kashmir should have been with Pakistan, because it has a Muslim majority.
- India has shown disregard to the resolutions of the UN Security Council and the United Nations Commission in India and Pakistan by failing to hold a plebiscite to determine the future allegiance of the state. [90]
- The Kashmiri people have now been forced by circumstances to uphold their right of self-determination through militancy. Pakistan claims to give the Kashmiri insurgents moral, ethical and military support (see 1999 Kargil Conflict).
- Recent protests in Indian-administered Kashmir attracted a large number of people to massive rallies that took place to oppose Indian control of the state. [91]

• Pakistan points to the violence that accompanies elections in Indian Kashmir^[92] and the anti Indian sentiments expressed by some people in the state.^[93]

- Pakistan has noted the widespread use of extrajudicial killings in Indian-administered Kashmir carried out by
 Indian security forces while claiming they were caught up in encounters with militants. These encounters are
 commonplace in Indian-administered Kashmir. The encounters go largely uninvestigated by the authorities, and
 the perpetrators are spared criminal prosecution. [94][95]
- Pakistan points towards reports from the United Nations which condemn India for its human rights violations
 against Kashmiri people. [39] Human rights organizations have strongly condemned Indian troops for widespread
 rape and murder of innocent civilians while accusing these civilians of being militants. [96][97][98]
- The Chenab formula was a compromise proposed in the 1960s, in which the Kashmir valley and other Muslim-dominated areas north of the Chenab river would go to Pakistan, and Jammu and other Hindu-dominated regions would go to India. [99]

Chinese view

- China did not accept the boundaries of the princely state of Kashmir and Jammu, north of the Aksai Chin and the Karakoram that were proposed by the British. [17]
- China settled its border disputes with Pakistan in the Trans Karakoram Tract in 1963 with the provision that the settlement was subject to the final solution of the Kashmir dispute.

Cross-border troubles

The border and the Line of Control separating Indian and Pakistani Kashmir passes through some exceptionally difficult terrain. The world's highest battleground, the Siachen Glacier, is a part of this difficult-to-man boundary. Even with 200,000 military personnel, ^[101] India maintains that it is infeasible to place enough men to guard all sections of the border throughout the various seasons of the year. Pakistan has indirectly acquiesced its role in failing to prevent "cross border terrorism" when it agreed to curb such activities ^[102] after intense pressure from the Bush administration in mid 2002.

The Government of Pakistan has repeatedly claimed that by constructing a fence along the line of control, India is violating the Shimla Accord. India claims the construction of the fence has helped decrease armed infiltration into Indian-administered Kashmir.

In 2002, Pakistani President and Army Chief General Pervez Musharraf promised to check infiltration into Jammu and Kashmir.

Water dispute

Another reason for the dispute over Kashmir is water. Kashmir is the origin point for many rivers and tributaries of the Indus River basin. The river basin is divided between Pakistan, which has about 60 per cent of the catchment area, India with about 20 per cent, Afghanistan with 5 per cent and around 15 per cent in Tibet. The river tributaries are the Jhelum and Chenab rivers, which primarily flow into Pakistan while other branches—the Ravi, Beas, and the Sutlej—irrigate northern India.

The Indus is a river system that sustains communities in both countries India and Pakistan. They both have extensively dammed the Indus River for irrigation fo their crops and hydro-electricity systems. In arbitrating the conflict in 1947 Sir Cyril Radcliffe, decided to demarcate the territories as he was unable to give to one or the other the control over the river as it was a main economic resource forth both areas. The Line of Control (LoC) was recognised as an international border establishing that India would have control over the upper riparian and Pakistan over the lower riparian of Indus and its tributaries. However they might seem separate issues, the Kashmir dispute and the dispute over the water control are somehow related and the fight over the water remains as one of the main problems when establishing good relationships between the two countries.

In 1948, Eugene Black, then president of the World Bank, offered his services in order to solve the tension around the water control. In the early days of independence, the fact that India was able to shut off the Central Bari Doab Canals at the time of the sowing season, causing significant damage to Pakistan's crops. Nevertheless, military and political clashes over Kashmir in the early years of independence appear to be more about ideology and sovereignty, rather than sharing water resources. But the minister of Pakistan stated the oppossite. [103]

The Indus Waters Treaty was signed by both countries in September 1960, giving exclusive rights over the three western rivers of the Indus river system (Jhelum, Chenab and Indus) to Pakistan, and over the three eastern rivers (Sutlej, Ravi and Beas) to India, as long as it does not reduce or delay the supply to Pakistan. India therefore maintains that they are not willing to break the regulation established and they see no more problems with this issue.

Human rights abuse

Indian administered Kashmir

Claims of human rights abuses have been made against the Indian Armed Forces and the armed insurgents operating in Jammu and Kashmir. [104]. Since 1989, over 50,000 and by some reports nearly 100,000 Kashmiris have claimed to be died during the conflict. [105]. Indian Security forces have allegedly killed hundreds of Kashmiris by indiscriminate use of force and torture, firing on demonstrations, custodial killings, fake encounters and unlawful detensions [106][107][108][109][110][111][112][113]. Kashmiris in thousands have vanished in enforced disappearances by Indian security forces [114][115][116]. State Human Rights Commission (SHRC) has found 2,730 bodies buried into unmarked graves scattered all over Kashmir believed to contain the remains of victims of unlawful killings and enforced disappearances by Indian security forces [117][118]. According to the cables leaked by website WikiLeaks, US diplomats in 2005 were informed by the International Committee of the Red Cross (ICRC) about the use of torture and sexual humiliation against hundreds of Kashmiri detainees by the security forces [119]. The cable said Indian security forces relied on torture for confessions and the human right abuses are believed to be condoned by the Indian government [120].

During the eruption of armed rebellion the Islamic insurgency has claimed to have specifically targeted the Hindu Kashmiri Pandits minority and violated their human rights. 400,000 Kashmiri Hindus have either been murdered or displaced. The main organisation of Hindus in Kashmir, Kashmir Pandit Sangharsh Samiti claimed that 399 Kashmiri Pandit were killed by Islamic insurgents. The violence was condemned and labeled as ethnic cleansing in a 2006 resolution passed by the United States Congress. The CIA has reported about 300,000 Pandit Hindus and over 100,000 Kashmiri Muslims from Indian Administered Kashmir are internally displaced due to the insurgency. The United Nations Commission on Human Rights reports that there are roughly 1.5 million refugees from Indian-administered Kashmir in Pakistan-administered Kashmir and in Pakistan.

A 2005 study conducted by Médecins Sans Frontières found that Kashmiri women are among the worst sufferers of sexual violence in the world, with 11.6% of respondents reporting that they had been victims of sexual abuse. [126] Some surveys have found that in the Kashmir region itself (where the bulk of separatist and Indian military activity is concentrated), popular perception holds that the Indian Armed Forces are more to blame for human rights violations than the separatist groups. Amnesty International has called on India to "unequivocally condemn enforced disappearances" and to ensure that impartial investigation is conducted on mass graves in its Kashmir region. The Indian state police confirms as many as 331 deaths while in custody and 111 enforced disappearances since 1989. [127][128][129][130] Amnesty International criticised the Indian Military regarding an incident on 22 April 1996, when several armed forces personnel forcibly entered the house of a 32-year-old woman in the village of Wawoosa in the Rangreth district of Jammu and Kashmir. They reportedly molested her 12-year-old daughter and raped her other three daughters, aged 14, 16, and 18. When another woman attempted to prevent the soldiers from attacking her two daughters, she was beaten. Soldiers reportedly told her 17-year-old daughter to remove her clothes so that they could check whether she was hiding a gun. They molested her before leaving the house. [130]

Several international agencies and the UN have reported human rights violations in Indian-administered Kashmir. In a recent press release the OHCHR spokesmen stated "The Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights is concerned about the recent violent protests in Indian-administered Kashmir that have reportedly led to civilian casualties as well as restrictions to the right to freedom of assembly and expression." A 1996 Human Rights Watch report accuses the Indian military and Indian-government backed paramilitaries of "committ[ing] serious and widespread human rights violations in Kashmir." One such alleged massacre occurred on 6 January 1993 in the town of Sopore. *TIME Magazine* described the incident as such: "In retaliation for the killing of one soldier, paramilitary forces rampaged through Sopore's market, setting buildings ablaze and shooting bystanders. The Indian government pronounced the event 'unfortunate' and claimed that an ammunition dump had been hit by gunfire, setting off fires that killed most of the victims." There have been claims of disappearances by the police or the army in Kashmir by several human rights organizations. Jammu and Kashmir Public Safety Act, 1978: Human rights organizations have asked Indian government to repeal human rights Cafety Act, since a detainee may be held in administrative detention for a maximum of two years without a court order.



A soldier guards the roadside checkpoint outside Srinagar International Airport in January 2009.

Many human rights organizations such as Amnesty International and the Human Rights Watch (HRW) have condemned human rights abuses in Kashmir by Indians such as "extra-judicial executions", "disappearances", and torture. [129] The "Armed Forces Special Powers Act" grants the military, wide powers of arrest, the right to shoot to kill, and to occupy or destroy property in counterinsurgency operations. Indian officials claim that troops need such powers because the army is only deployed when national security is at serious risk from armed combatants. Such circumstances, they say, call for extraordinary measures. Human rights organizations have also asked Indian government to repeal [137] the Public Safety Act, since "a detainee may

be held in administrative detention for a maximum of two years without a court order."^[128] A 2008 report by the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees determined that Indian Administered Kashmir was only 'partly free'.^[127] A recent report by Amnesty International stated that up to 20,000 people have been detained by draconian laws in Indian-administered Kashmir.^{[128][129][130][138][139][140]}

Pakistan administered Kashmir

Azad Kashmir

Pakistan, an Islamic Republic, imposes multiple restrictions on peoples' religious freedom. [141] Religious minorities also face unofficial economic and societal discrimination and have been targets of sectarian violence. [141]

The constitution of Azad Kashmir specifically prohibits activities that may be prejudicial to the state's accession to Pakistan, and as such regularly suppresses demonstrations against the government. A number of Islamist militant groups operate in this area including Al-Qaeda, with tacit permission from Pakistan's intelligence. As in Indian administered Kashmir, there have been allegations of human rights abuse.

A report titled "Kashmir: Present Situation and Future Prospects", which was submitted to the European Parliament by Emma Nicholson, Baroness Nicholson of Winterbourne, was critical of the lack of human rights, justice, democracy, and Kashmiri representation in the Pakistan National Assembly. [142] According to the Human Rights Commission of Pakistan, Pakistan's Inter Services Intelligence operates in Pakistan-administered Kashmir and is involved in extensive surveillance, arbitrary arrests, torture, and murder. [141] Generally this is done with impunity and perpetrators go unpunished. [141] The 2008 report by the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees determined that Pakistan-administered Kashmir was 'Not free'. [141] According to Shaukat Ali, chairman of the International Kashmir Alliance, "On one hand Pakistan claims to be the champion of the right of self-determination

of the Kashmiri people, but she has denied the same rights under its controlled parts of Kashmir and Gilgit-Baltistan". [143]

Gilgit-Baltistan

The main demand of the people of Gilgit-Baltistan is a constitutional status to the region as a fifth province of Pakistan. [144][145] However, Pakistan claims that Gilgit-Baltistan cannot be given constitutional status due to Pakistan's commitment to the 1948 UN resolution. [145][146] In 2007, International Crisis Group stated that "Almost six decades after Pakistan's independence, the constitutional status of the Federally Administered Northern Areas (Gilgit and Baltistan), once part of the former princely state of Jammu and Kashmir and now under Pakistani control, remains undetermined, with political autonomy a distant dream. The region's inhabitants are embittered by Islamabad's unwillingness to devolve powers in real terms to its elected representatives, and a nationalist movement, which seeks independence, is gaining ground. The rise of sectarian extremism is an alarming consequence of this denial of basic political rights". [147] A two-day conference on Gilgit-Baltistan was held on 8–9 April 2008 at the European Parliament in Brussels under the auspices of the International Kashmir Alliance. [148] Several members of the European Parliament expressed concern over the human rights violation in Gilgit-Baltistan and urged the government of Pakistan to establish democratic institutions and rule of law in the area. [148][149]

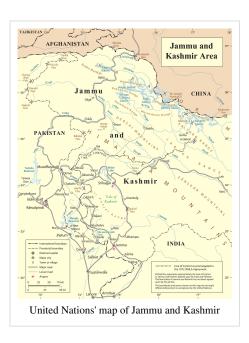
In 2009, the Pakistan government implemented an autonomy package for Gilgit-Baltistan which entails rights similar to those of Pakistan's other provinces. [144] Gilgit-Baltistan thus gains province-like status without actually being conferred such a status constitutionally. [144][146] The direct rule by Islamabad is replaced by an elected legislative assembly and its chief minister. [144][146]

There has been criticism and opposition to this move in Pakistan, India, and Pakistan administrated Kashmir. ^[150] The move has been dubbed as an eyewash to hide the real mechanics of power, which allegedly are under the direct control of the Pakistani federal government. ^[151] The package was opposed by Pakistani Kashmiri politicians who claimed that the integration of Gilgit-Baltistan into Pakistan would undermine their case for the independence of Kashmir from India. ^[145] 300 activists from Kashmiri groups protested during the first Gilgit-Baltistan legislative assembly elections, with some carrying banners reading "Pakistan's expansionist designs in Gilgit-Baltistan are unacceptable" ^[145]

In December 2009, activists of nationalist Kashmiri groups staged a protest in Muzaffarabad to condemn the alleged rigging of elections and killing of a 18-year old student.^[152]

Map issues

As with other disputed territories, each government issues maps depicting their claims in Kashmir territory, regardless of actual control. Due to India's Criminal Law Amendment Act, 1961, it is illegal in India to exclude all or part of Kashmir in a map (or to publish any map that differs from those of the Survey of India). [153] It is illegal in Pakistan not to include the state of Jammu and Kashmir as disputed territory, as permitted by the United Nations. Non-participants often use the Line of Control and the Line of Actual Control as the depicted boundaries, as is done in the CIA World Factbook, and the region is often marked out in hashmarks, although the Indian government strictly opposes such practices. When Microsoft released a map in Windows 95 and MapPoint 2002, a controversy was raised because it did not show all of Kashmir as part of India as per the Indian claim. All the neutral and Pakistani companies claim to follow the UN's map and over 90% of all maps containing the territory of Kashmir show it as disputed territory.[154]



The boundaries, names, and designations used on the map prepared by the United Nations do not imply official endorsement or acceptance by the United Nations, the Commonwealth Secretariat, or the publishers concerning the legal status of any country, territory or area, or of its authorities, or concerning the delimitation of its frontiers or boundaries. There is no intention to define the status of Jammu and/or Kashmir, which has not yet been agreed upon by the parties. A dotted line represents the Line of Control agreed upon by the Republic of India and the Government of Pakistan since 1972. Both parties have not yet agreed upon the final status of the region, and nothing significant has been implemented since the peace process began in 2004.

The Government of Pakistan maintains unprovisionally and unconditionally that the informal accession of Jammu and Kashmir to Pakistan or to the Republic of India remains to be decided by UN plebiscite. It accepts the UN's map of the territory.

The Government of India states that "the external artificial boundaries of India, especially concerning the Kashmir region under its jurisdiction created by a foreign body are neither correct nor authenticated".

Recent developments

India continues to assert their sovereignty or rights over the entire region of Kashmir, while Pakistan maintains that it is a disputed territory. Pakistan argues that the status quo cannot be considered as a solution. Pakistan insists on a UN-sponsored plebiscite. Unofficially, the Pakistani leadership has indicated that they would be willing to accept alternatives such as a demilitarized Kashmir, if sovereignty of Azad Kashmir was to be extended over the Kashmir valley, or the "Chenab" formula, by which India would retain parts of Kashmir on its side of the Chenab river, and Pakistan the other side – effectively re-partitioning Kashmir on communal lines. The problem is that the population of the Pakistan-administered portion of Kashmir is for the most part ethnically, linguistically, and culturally different from the Valley of Kashmir, a part of Indian-administered Kashmir. A partition on the Chenab formula is opposed by some Kashmiri politicians, though some, such as Sajjad Lone, have suggested that the non-Muslim part of Jammu and Kashmir be separated from Kashmir and handed to India. Some political analysts say that the Pakistan state policy shift and mellowing of its aggressive stance may have to do with its total failure in the Kargil War and the subsequent 9/11 attacks. These events put pressure on Pakistan to alter its position on terrorism. [155] Many neutral parties to the dispute have noted that the UN resolution on Kashmir is no longer relevant. [156] The European Union has viewed that the plebiscite is not in Kashmiris' interest. [157] The report notes that the UN conditions for such a

plebiscite have not been, and can no longer be, met by Pakistan.^[158] The Hurriyat Conference observed in 2003 that a "plebiscite [is] no longer an option". Besides the popular factions that support either parties, there is a third faction which supports independence and withdrawal of both India and Pakistan. These have been the respective stands of the parties for long, and there have been no significant changes over the years. As a result, all efforts to solve the conflict have been futile so far.

In a 2001 report titled "Pakistan's Role in the Kashmir Insurgency" from the American RAND Corporation, the think tank noted that "the nature of the Kashmir conflict has been transformed from what was originally a secular, locally based struggle (conducted via the Jammu Kashmir Liberation Front – JKLF) to one that is now largely carried out by foreign militants and rationalized in pan-Islamic religious terms." Most of the militant organizations are composed of foreign mercenaries, mostly from the Pakistani Punjab. [160] In 2010, with the support of its intelligence agencies, Pakistan has again been 'boosting' Kashmir militants, and recruitment of mujahideen in the Pakistani state of Punjab has increased. [161][162] In 2011, the FBI revealed that Pakistan's spy agency ISI paid millions of dollars into a United States-based non-governmental organization to influence politicians and opinion-makers on the Kashmir issue and arrested Syed Ghulam Nabi Fai. [163]

The Freedom in the World 2006 report categorized Indian-administered Kashmir as "partly free", and Pakistan-administered Kashmir, as well as the country of Pakistan, as "not free". [164] India claims that contrary to popular belief, a large proportion of the Jammu and Kashmir populace wishes to remain with India. A MORI survey found that within Indian-administered Kashmir, 61% of respondents said they felt they would be better off as Indian citizens, with 33% saying that they did not know, and the remaining 6% favouring Pakistani citizenship. However, this support for India was mainly in Ladakh and Jammu regions, not the Kashmir Valley, as only 9% of the respondents from the Kashmir Valley said that they would be better off with India. [165] According to a 2007 poll conducted by the Centre for the Study of Developing Societies in New Delhi, 87% of respondents in the Kashmir Valley prefer independence over union with India or Pakistan. [166] However, a survey by the Chatham House in both Indian and Pakistani administered Kashmir found that support of independence was at 43% and 44% respectively. [167]

The 2005 Kashmir earthquake, which killed over 80,000 people, led to India and Pakistan finalizing negotiations for the opening of a road for disaster relief through Kashmir.

Efforts to end the crisis

The 9/11 attacks on the United States resulted in the U.S. government wanting to restrain militancy in the world, including Pakistan. They urged Islamabad to cease infiltrations, which continue to this day, by Islamist militants into Indian-administered Kashmir. In December 2001, a terrorist attack on the Indian Parliament linked to Pakistan, resulted in war threats, massive deployment, and international fears of a nuclear war in the subcontinent.

After intensive diplomatic efforts by other countries, India and Pakistan began to withdraw troops from the international border on 10 June 2002, and negotiations began again. Effective 26 November 2003, India and Pakistan agreed to maintain a ceasefire along the undisputed international border, the disputed Line of Control, and the Siachen glacier. This is the first such "total ceasefire" declared by both powers in nearly 15 years. In February 2004, Pakistan increased pressure on Pakistanis fighting in Indian-administered Kashmir to adhere to the ceasefire. The neighbours launched several other mutual confidence-building measures. Restarting the bus service between the Indian- and Pakistani- administered Kashmir has helped defuse the tensions between the countries. Both India and Pakistan have decided to cooperate on economic fronts.

On 5 December 2006, Pakistani President Pervez Musharraf told an Indian TV channel that Pakistan would give up its claim on Kashmir if India accepted some of his peace proposals, including a phased withdrawal of troops, self-governance for locals, no changes in the borders of Kashmir, and a joint supervision mechanism involving India, Pakistan, and Kashmir. [168] Musharraf stated that he was ready to give up the United Nations' resolutions regarding Kashmir. [169]

2008 militant attacks

In the week of 10 March 2008, 17 people were wounded when a blast hit the region's only highway overpass located near the Civil Secretariat—the seat of government of Indian-controlled Kashmir—and the region's high court. A gun battle between security forces and militants fighting against Indian rule left five people dead and two others injured on 23 March 2008. The battle began when security forces raided a house on the outskirts of the capital city of Srinagar, housing militants. The Indian Army has been carrying out cordon-and-search operations against militants in Indian-administered Kashmir since the violence broke out in 1989. While the authorities say 43,000 persons have been killed in the violence, various rights groups and non-governmental organizations have put the figure at twice that number. [170]

According to the Government of India Home Ministry, 2008 was the year with the lowest civilian casualties in 20 years, with 89 deaths, compared to a high of 1,413 in 1996. [171] 85 security personnel died in 2008 compared to 613 in 2001, while 102 militants were killed. The human rights situation improved, with only one custodial death, and no custodial disappearances. Many analysts say Pakistan's preoccupation with jihadis within its own borders explains the relative calm. [172]

2008 Kashmir protests

Massive demonstrations occurred after plans by the Indian-administered Jammu and Kashmir state government to transfer 100 acres (**unknown operator: u'strong'** km²) of land to a trust which runs the Hindu Amarnath shrine in the Muslim-majority Kashmir valley.^[173] This land was to be used to build a shelter to house Hindu pilgrims temporarily during their annual pilgrimage to the Amarnath temple.

Indian security forces and the Indian army responded quickly to keep order. More than 40 unarmed protesters were killed^{[174][175]} and at least 300 were detained.^[176] The largest protests saw more than a half million people waving Pakistani flags and crying for freedom at a rally on 18 August, according to *Time magazine*.^[177] Pro-independence Kashmir leader Mirwaiz Umar Farooq warned that the peaceful uprising could lead to an upsurge in violence if India's heavy-handed crackdown on protests was not restrained.^[178] The United Nations expressed concern on India's response to peaceful protests and urged investigations be launched against Indian security personnel who had taken part in the crackdown.^[39]

Separatists and workers of a political party were believed to be behind stone-pelting incidents, which led to retaliatory fire by the police. [179][180] An autorickshaw laden with stones meant for distribution was seized by the police in March 2009. Following the unrest in 2008, secessionist movements got a boost. [181][182]

2008 Kashmir elections

State elections were held in Indian-held Kashmir in seven phases, starting 17 November and finishing on 24 December 2008. In spite of calls by separatists for a boycott, an unusually high turnout of almost 50% was recorded. The National Conference party, which was founded by Sheikh Abdullah and is regarded as pro-India, emerged with a majority of the seats. On 30 December, the Congress Party and the National Conference agreed to form a coalition government, with Omar Abdullah as Chief Minister. In 5 January 2009, Abdullah was sworn in as the eleventh Chief Minister of Jammu and Kashmir.

In March 2009, Abdullah stated that only 800 militants were active in the state and out of these only 30% were Kashmiris. ^[187]

2009 Kashmir protests

In 2009, protests started over the alleged rape and murder of two young women in Shopian in South Kashmir. Suspicion pointed towards the police as the perpetrators. A judicial enquiry by a retired High Court confirmed the suspicion, but a CBI enquiry reversed their conclusion. It gave a fresh impetus to the popular agitation against India. Significantly, the unity between the separatist parties was lacking this time. [188]

2010 Kashmir Unrest

The 2010 Kashmir unrest were a series of protests in the Muslim majority Kashmir Valley in Jammu & Kashmir which started in June 2010. These protests occurred in response to 'Quit Jammu Kashmir Movement' which was a civil disobedience movement launched by Hurriyat Conference led by Syed Ali Shah Geelani and Mirwaiz Umar Farooq, who had called for the complete demilitarization of Jammu and Kashmir. The All Parties Hurriyat Conference made this call to protest, citing human rights abuses by Indian troops. [189] Protesters shouting pro-independence slogans, defied curfew, attacked security forces with stones and burnt police vehicles and government buildings. [190][191] The Jammu and Kashmir Police and Indian Para-military forces fired live ammunition on the protesters, resulting in 112 deaths, including many teenagers. The protests subsided after the Indian government announced a package of measures aimed at defusing the tensions in September 2010. [192]

US President Obama on the conflict

In an interview with Joe Klein of *Time* magazine in October 2008, Barack Obama expressed his intention to try to work with India and Pakistan to resolve the crisis. [193] He said he had talked to Bill Clinton about it, as Clinton has experience being a mediator. In an editorial in The Washington Times, Selig S Harrison, [194] director of the Asia Programme at the Center for International Policy and a senior scholar of the Woodrow Wilson International, called it Obama's first foreign policy mistake. [195] In an editorial, *The Australian* called Obama's idea to appoint a presidential negotiator "a very stupid and dangerous move indeed". [196] In an editorial in Forbes, Reihan Salam, associate editor for *The Atlantic*, noted "The smartest thing President Obama could do on Kashmir is probably nothing. We have to hope that India and Pakistan can work out their differences on Kashmir on their own". [197] The Boston Globe called the idea of appointing Bill Clinton as an envoy to Kashmir "a mistake". [198] President Obama appointed Richard Holbrooke as special envoy to Pakistan and Afghanistan. [199] President Asif Ali Zardari hoped that Holbrooke would help mediate to resolve the Kashmir issue. [200] Subsequently Kashmir was removed from the mandate of Holbrooke. [201] "Eliminating ... Kashmir from his job description ... is seen as a significant diplomatic concession to India that reflects increasingly warm ties between the country and the United States," The Washington Post noted in a report. [202] Brajesh Mishra, India's former national security adviser, was quoted in the same report as saying that "No matter what government is in place, India is not going to relinquish control of Jammu and Kashmir". "That is written in stone and cannot be changed." [203] According to *The Financial Times*. India has warned Obama that he risks "barking up the wrong tree" if he seeks to broker a settlement between Pakistan and India over Kashmir. [204]

In July 2009, U.S. Assistant Secretary of State Robert O. Blake, Jr. stated that the United States had no plans of appointing any special envoy to settle the dispute, calling it an issue which needs to be sorted out bilaterally by India and Pakistan. [205] According to *Dawn* this will be interpreted in Pakistan as an endorsement of India's position on Kashmir that no outside power has any role in this dispute. [206]

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The template Jammu and Kashmir freedom movement is being considered for deletion.

Stages of the war

Military operations in Ladakh (1948)

Military operations took place in Ladakh in 1948 during the conflict in Jammu and Kashmir between the Indian Army and Pakistani raiders infiltrated to capture the kingdom of Jammu and Kashmir. The eviction of this invading force of tribal raiders, who enjoyed numerical superiority, better lines of communication, commanding high ground and superior logistics, was a major military achievement for the small force of Indian soldiers.

Relief of Leh

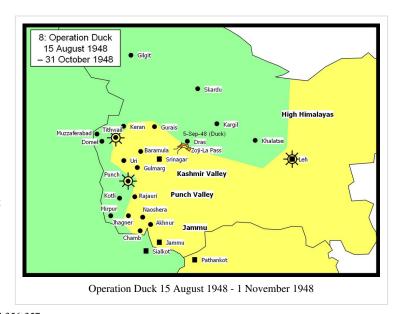
Pakistani raiders had besieged and reduced Skardu in early 1948.^{[1]:300-305} It was vital that Leh, the next likely target, be relieved before it was attacked by the raiders. Maj Prithi Chand, a Lahauli officer with a band of 40 volunteers from the 2nd Battalion, Dogra Regiment began a hazardous mid-winter ascent of Zojila pass on 16 February 1948, with rifles and ammunition for the garrison. They reached Leh on 8 March, where an ad hoc force for defence was organised, followed soon by a Jammu and Kashmir State Forces detachment bringing additional weapons. ^{[2]:195-199}

Reinforcement of Leh

The slow advance of raiders permitted reinforcement of Leh by air by a coy of 2nd Battalion, 4 Gorkha Rifles (2/4 GR) and later a coy of 2nd Battalion, 8th Gorkha Rifles (2/8 GR) by air just in time to repulse the raiders. [3]:109 Had the raiders kept advancing they could have captured Leh easily. The garrison of Leh held despite shortage of troops, weapons and ammunition, sickness and fatigue. In August another coy of 2/8 GR was flown in by air and the remaining part of the battalion, codenamed *Arjun* column, with a large column of supplies on mules, trekked to Leh from Manali. Another large mule column, codenamed *Chapati* column, followed in September to provide adequate supplies for the winter. [3]:110-111 Lt Col (later Col) HS Parab, CO 2/8 GR, was airlifted to Leh on 23 Aug and later designated Commander, Leh Brigade (though the force never exceeded two battalions in strength). [1]:336 Spirited small unit actions and guerilla raids on both banks of the Indus effectively held the raiders at bay throughout September and October.

Capture of Zoji La

When Zoji La fell to the enemy in May 1948, it was vital for the Indians that the pass be recaptured before winter so as to relieve Leh. An unsuccessful frontal attack was launched by 77 Parachute Brigade under Brig Hiralal Atal to capture Zoji La pass. [3]:112 Operation Duck, the earlier epithet for this assault, was renamed as Operation Bison by Lt Gen Cariappa, the Western Army commander. [3]:113 M5 Stuart light tanks of 7 Cavalry were moved in dismantled conditions through Srinagar to Baltal while the superhuman efforts of two field companies of the Madras Sappers working day and night improved the mule



track from Baltal up the Zoji La to Gumri. [1]:356-357 The surprise attack on 1 November by the brigade with armour, led by the division commander Thimayya in the lead tank, [4] and supported by two regiments of 25 pounders and a regiment of 3.7 inch guns, saw the enemy being surprised. The pass was forced and the enemy pushed back to Matayan.

Liberation of Leh and Kargil

Since the raiders were inactive on the Leh front during 77 Para Brigade's operations in Zoji La, Leh Brigade went onto the offensive advancing from Tharu to Marol on the north bank of the Indus and from Chilling to Lamayuru to Kargil on the south bank. Another detachment advanced along the Shyok River clearing opposition on that axis and securing the Nubra Valley flank.

On the Zoji La front, 77 Parachute Brigade launched a deliberate attack and captured Matayan on 13 November and Dras on 15 November. The brigade linked up on 24 November at Kargil with Indian troops advancing from Leh while the enemy withdrew northwards toward Skardu. [3]:126 The Indian pursuit was halted by fierce enemy action at Chathatang, 5 km ahead of the Marol fork of the Indus. The strong enemy defenses, on both banks of the Indus, resisted till 1 January 1949 when a ceasefire was called.

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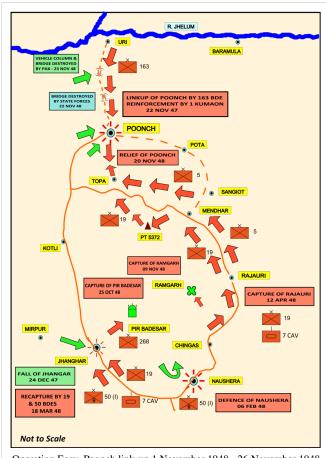
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Military operations in Poonch (1948)

Military operations took place in Poonch district, then part of the princely state of Jammu and Kashmir, in 1948 during the conflict in Jammu and Kashmir between the Indian Army and Pakistani forces. Poonch withstood a siege by the Pakistanis from November 1947 till relieved by an Indian offensive, Operation Easy on 20 November 1948. The besieged garrison, commanded by Brig Pritam Singh, was maintained by air supply. Military operations ended with Poonch town and the eastern part of Poonch district in Indian hands and western Poonch in Pakistani hands.

Threat to Poonch

Poonch is a small town in Western Jammu, on the confluence of Batar and Suran rivers, which forms the Poonch river. In 1947, it was the seat of the Raja who was a vassal of Maharaja Hari Singh of Jammu and Kashmir. Prior to 1947, communications with Poonch were through the Punjabi town of Jhelum; towns in the east such as Rajauri, Naushera and Jammu being connected only by fair-weather tracks.



Operation Easy. Poonch link-up 1 November 1948 - 26 November 1948

Pakistan had targeted Poonch district, which had a large population of Muslim serving and retired soldiers, as an important objective. Pakistani forces comprised regular soldiers, ex-servicemen and Pashtun tribals, along with Muslim Poonchies inflamed by reports of massacre of Muslim refugees during the communal violence of partition. [3]:18

The attackers infiltrated Poonch, as part of Operation "Gulmarg", as a springboard to capture the Jammu region. The town was threatened by the raiders when JAKFORCE HQ decided to reinforce it from the North.

The relief of Poonch from Jammu was exacerbated by the fact that it lay across many kilometers of hilly terrain with poor communications. Paucity of troops, the need to secure the line of communication and to establish a firm base, and, Prime Minister Nehru's decision to make the Kashmir Valley the immediate priority led to its relief much after the fall of Mirpur, Kotli and Bhimber, towns with predominantly Hindu populations which were swelled by large numbers of non-Muslim refugees. The massacre of the populations of the surrounding areas, not only swelled the refugee population in Poonch, but also led to Pandit Nehru's insisting that it be held, albeit as a besieged outpost, on political grounds over-ruling military advice to vacate it being untenable with the resources at hand.

Reinforcement of Poonch

A total of 40,000 refugees sheltered in Poonch fleeing from tribal atrocities in the West. [1]:91 Since the state forces were grossly inadequate to fend off the raiders, a decision to reinforce the garrison was made by Maj Gen Kalwant Singh, commander of JAKFORCE. An attempt by 50 Parachute Brigade, under Brig Y.S. Paranjpye, was planned. The brigade faced difficult terrain and tough opposition and was not able to relieve Poonch. [4]:124 161st Infantry Brigade, which had pushed the raiders back to Domel on the Muzzafarabad-Srinagar route, was tasked to link up with Poonch from the North.

Just before Poonch was contacted by the raiders, the town was reinforced on 22 Nov 47 by a column from 161 Brigade which left behind an infantry battalion, 1st Battalion (Parachute), Kumaon Regiment (1 KUMAON) under Lieutenant Colonel (later Brigadier) Pritam Singh who became the commander of Poonch garrison. There was also an understrength brigade of J&K State Forces under Brig Kishen Singh already present in Poonch which came under command of the Indian Army. [4]:124

In January 1948, another battalion of infantry, the 3rd Battalion, 9 Gorkha Rifles (3/9 GR) was airlifted into Poonch to bolster the defences. [1]:91

Siege of Poonch

Poonch was isolated by the raiders soon after the reinforcement. Brig Pritam Singh organised the defenses with regular troops, stiffening them with the State Forces and two ad hoc militia battalions, organised from the refugees. The defenders kept the besiegers at bay by vigorous patrolling and fierce small unit actions. An air strip suitable for Dakotas was fashioned using the besieged civilians as labour.

On 12 December 1947, Wing Commander Mehar Singh, accompanied by Air Vice Marshal Subroto Mukerjee, carried out a daring trial in a Harvard on the makeshift airstrip. The same day, the first Dakotas landed on Poonch airstrip carrying with them a complete section of mountain artillery. Thereafter the fledgling Royal Indian Air Force



Refugees awaiting evacuation by Dakota on Poonch airstrip, December 1947.

began what they called the "Punching" drive, an air bridge of Dakotas, first by day and later by night. [5][6]:304-05[7] The air bridge flew in supplies and flew out refugees, despite interdiction by Pakistani mountain artillery, to counter which Indian 25 pounder guns were flown in. [1]:92-93

The air force also attacked the Pakistani columns with Tempests and Harvards.^[5] Attacks on Poonch reduced during summer due to the protracted operations in the Uri sector and were resumed in August 1948, necessitating an immediate relief of Poonch.^{[1]:93-94}

Poonch was referred to as the "Tobruk of Kashmir", though unlike Tobruk, it never fell. [1]:90

Operation Easy

A relieving force under Brig Yadunath Singh was assembled at Rajauri, which eventually grew to be division-sized, comprising 5 and 19 Infantry Brigade as well as "Rajauri column" with supporting field artillery and two troops of Sherman tanks of the Central India Horse. [1]:99-100 The codename of the operation was "Operation EASY" to make the complex operation appear psychologically easier to execute. [1]:95

The operation commenced on the night of 6/7 November with 5 Brigade advancing on the right of the axis of advance and 19 Brigade on the left flank. Bhimber Gali, captured by the two brigades, and Ramgarh fort, captured by Rajauri Force, were the first features to be captured. In the meantime, 268 Infantry Brigade carried out OP RANJIT in which it captured Pir Badesar, a tactically strong locality overlooking the Seri valley which protected Jhangar from the north and posed a direct threat to Kotli and thus protected the flank of the advance from a Pakistani threat to the line of communication near Chingas. [1]:97[3]:257-262

19 Infantry Brigade came across determined opposition at Point 5372, a feature southeast of Mendhar, which guarded the route to Kotli. Continuing to demonstrate against Point 5372 as a ruse, the major force was switched to the right flank where opposition was light. These two brigades then captured Pt 5982 and Topa ridge south of Poonch. On 20 November, the Poonch garrison broke through to the south over the hills for the linkup. On 23 November, Mendhar was a captured in a pincer move by 19 Infantry Brigade from the South permitting the Engineers to construct a jeep track via Mendhar to Poonch. [1]:101-102

Operation Easy resulted in capture of 800 square miles (**unknown operator: u'strong'** km²) of territory. Large numbers of refugees, including 10,000 Muslims were able to get away and obtain relief from the state administration. [1]:102

Aftermath

While Poonch was secured, costly gains made by the Indian 161st Infantry Brigade and 77th Parachute Brigade in the Uri sector were lost by ill-advised vacation of Led Gali and Pir Kanthi picquets in the Haji Pir region for the winter by the Indian brigade commander responsible, allowing Pakistan to reoccupy these picquets and occupy a large salient centred on the Haji Pir pass. Before any action could be taken by the Indians to reduce the salient, ceasefire was declared on 02 Jan 1949 leaving these locations secure in Pakistani hands. [4]:289-291 Poonch continues to be a border outpost on the Line of Control in between the Indian and Pakistani administered regions of Jammu and Kashmir.

The decision to hold and relieve Poonch saved thousands of civilian lives but at the military cost of diverting troops from the capture of Domel and Muzzafarabad during a period of vulnerability ^[4] as well as diverting troops from the capture of Mirpur and Bhimber, a more meaningful strategical gambit.

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- [6] Longer, V. (1974). Red coats to olive green: A history of the Indian Army, 1600-1974. Bombay: Allied Publishers. pp. 543. ISBN 856551309.
- [7] Longer (1974) mentions that the aircraft was a Beechcraft while the Bharat Rakshak article, of Air Force origin and post-2000 vintage, mentions "Harvard", an aircraft known to have been used extensively in the 1947 Indo-Pakistani operation in the Jammu sector.

External links

•	Brig Pritam Singh, MC, Saviour of Poonch (http://poonch.nic.in/SaviourPch/SOP.htm). On Govt of India
	website on Poonch, Jammu & Kashmir (http://poonch.nic.in/welcome.html). Accessed 24 August 2010.

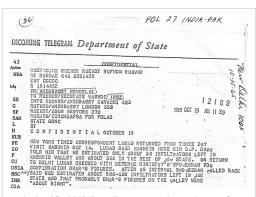
Indo-Pakistani War of 1965

The **Indo-Pakistani War of 1965** was a culmination of skirmishes that took place between April 1965 and September 1965 between Pakistan and India. This conflict became known as the **Second Kashmir War** fought by India and Pakistan over the disputed region of Kashmir, the first having been fought in 1947. The war began following Pakistan's Operation Gibraltar, which was designed to infiltrate forces into Jammu and Kashmir to precipitate an insurgency against rule by India. ^[1] The five-week war caused thousands of casualties on both sides. It ended in a United Nations (UN) mandated ceasefire and the subsequent issuance of the Tashkent Declaration. ^[17]

Much of the war was fought by the countries' land forces in Kashmir and along the International Border between India and Pakistan. This war saw the largest amassing of troops in Kashmir since the Partition of British India in 1947, a number that was overshadowed only during the 2001–2002 military standoff between India and Pakistan. Most of the battles were fought by opposing infantry and armoured units, with substantial backing from air forces, and naval operations. Many details of this war, like those of other Indo-Pakistani Wars, remain unclear. [17]

Pre-war escalation

Since Partition of British India in 1947, Pakistan and India remained in contention over several issues. Although the Kashmir conflict was the predominant issue dividing the nations, other border disputes existed, most notably over the Rann of Kutch, a barren region in the Indian state of Gujarat. The issue first arose in 1956 which ended with India regaining control over the disputed area. Pakistani patrols began patrolling in territory controlled by India in January 1965, which was followed by attacks by both countries on each others posts on 8 April 1965. Initially involving border police from both nations, the disputed area soon witnessed intermittent skirmishes between the countries' armed forces. In June 1965, British Prime Minister Harold Wilson successfully persuaded both countries to end hostilities and set up a tribunal to resolve the dispute. The verdict, which came later in



A declassified US State Department letter that confirms the existence of hundreds of "infiltrators" in the Indian state of Jammu and Kashmir. Dated during the events running up to the 1965 war.

1968, saw Pakistan awarded 350 square miles (900 km²) of the Rann of Kutch, as against its original claim of 3500 square miles (**unknown operator: u'strong'** km²). [4]

After its success in the Rann of Kutch, Pakistan, under the leadership of General Ayub Khan, believed the Indian Army would be unable to defend itself against a quick military campaign in the disputed territory of Kashmir as the Indian military had suffered a loss to China in 1962. Pakistan believed that the population of Kashmir was generally discontented with Indian rule and that a resistance movement could be ignited by a few infiltrating saboteurs. Pakistan attempted to ignite the resistance movement by means of a covert infiltration, codenamed Operation Gibraltar The Pakistani infiltrators were soon discovered, however, their presence reported by local Kashmiris, and the operation ended in a complete failure.

The war

On August 5, 1965 between 26,000 and 33,000 Pakistani soldiers crossed the Line of Control dressed as Kashmiri locals headed for various areas within Kashmir. Indian forces, tipped off by the local populace, crossed the cease fire line on August 15.^[5]



Commander-in-Chief Pakistan Army, General Muhammad Musa visiting the captured Khemkaran Railway Station, India

Initially, the Indian Army met with considerable success, capturing three important mountain positions after a prolonged artillery barrage. By the end of August, however, both sides had relative progress; Pakistan had made progress in areas such as Tithwal, Uri and Poonch and India had captured the Haji Pir Pass, 8 km into Pakistan-Administered Kashmir.

On 1 September 1965, Pakistan launched a counterattack, called Operation Grand Slam, with the objective to capture the vital town of Akhnoor in Jammu, which would sever communications and cut off supply routes to Indian troops. Ayub Khan calculated that "Hindu morale" (as he called Indian Army) won't stand more than two hard attacks at the right time and place; [8][9][10] although by this time Operation Gibraltar had failed, as per his biographer Altaf Gauhar and

India had captured the Haji Pir Pass. [8][11] Attacking with an overwhelming ratio of troops and technically superior tanks, Pakistan made gains against Indian forces, who were caught unprepared and suffered heavy losses. India responded by calling in its air force to blunt the Pakistani attack. The next day, Pakistan retaliated, its air force attacked Indian forces and air bases in both Kashmir and Punjab. India's decision to open up the theater of attack into Pakistani Punjab forced the Pakistani army to relocate troops engaged in the operation to defend Punjab. Operation Grand Slam therefore failed, as the Pakistan Army was unable to capture Akhnoor; it became one of the turning points in the war when India decided to relieve pressure on its troops in Kashmir by attacking Pakistan further south.

India crossed the International Border on the Western front on September 6, marking an official beginning of the war. [12] On September 6, the 15th Infantry Division of the Indian Army, under World War II veteran Major General Prasad, battled a massive counterattack by Pakistan near the west bank of the Ichogil Canal (BRB Canal), which was a *de facto* border of India and Pakistan. The General's entourage itself was ambushed and he was forced to flee his vehicle. A second, this time successful, attempt to cross the Ichhogil Canal was made over the bridge in the village of Barki, just east of Lahore. These developments brought the Indian Army within the range of Lahore International Airport. As a result, the United States requested a temporary ceasefire to allow it to evacuate its citizens in Lahore. However, the Pakistani counter attack took Khem Karan from Indian forces which tried to divert the attention of Pakistanis from Khem Karan by an attack on Bedian and the adjacent villages.



Lt. Col. Hari Singh of the India's 18th Cavalry posing outside a captured Pakistani police station (Barkee) in Lahore District.

The thrust against Lahore consisted of the 1st Infantry Division supported by the three tank regiments of the 2nd Independent Armoured Brigade; they quickly advanced across the border, reaching the Ichhogil (BRB) Canal by 6 September. The Pakistani Army held the bridges over the canal or blew up those it could not hold, effectively stalling any further advance by the Indians on Lahore. One unit of the Indian Jat Regiment, 3 Jat, had also crossed the Ichogil canal and captured^[13] the town of Batapore (Jallo Mur to Pakistan) on the west side of the canal. The same day, a counter offensive consisting of an armoured division and infantry division supported by Pakistan Air

Indo-Pakistani War of 1965 74

Force Sabres forced the Indian 15th Division to withdraw to its starting point. Although 3 Jat suffered minimal casualties, the bulk of the damage being taken by ammunition and stores vehicles, the higher commanders had no information of 3 Jat's capture of Batapore and misleading information led to the command to withdraw from Batapore and Dograi to Ghosal-Dial. This move brought extreme disappointment^[14] to Lt-Col Desmond Hayde, CO of 3 Jat. Dograi was eventually recaptured by 3 Jat on 21 September, for the second time but after a much harder battle due to Pakistani reinforcements.



Destroyed or abandoned Pakistani Patton and Sherman tanks on display near Khem Karan.

About 97 Pakistani tanks were either destroyed or captured by India during the Battle of Asal

Uttar. [15][16]

On September 8, 1965, a company of 5 Maratha Light Infantry was sent to reinforce a Rajasthan Armed Constabulary (RAC) post at Munabao – a strategic hamlet about 250 kilometres from Jodhpur. Their brief was simple. To hold the post and to keep Pakistan's infantry battalions from overrunning the post at bay. But at Maratha Hill (in Munabao) – as the post has now been christened – the Indian company could barely manage to thwart the intense attack for 24 hours. A company of 3 Guards with 954 heavy mortar battery ordered to reinforce the RAC post at Munabao could never reach. The Pakistani Air Force had strafed the entire area, and also hit a railway train coming from Barmer with reinforcements near Gadra road railway station. On September 10, Munabao fell into Pakistani hands, and efforts to capture the strategic point did not succeed. [17]

On the days following September 9, both nations' premiere formations were routed in unequal battles. India's 1st Armoured Division, labeled the "pride of the Indian Army", launched an offensive towards Sialkot.

The Division divided itself into two prongs, was forced back by the Pakistani 6th Armoured Division at Chawinda and was forced to withdraw after suffering heavy losses of nearly 100 tanks. The Pakistanis followed up their success by launching Operation Windup, which forced the Indians back farther. Similarly, Pakistan's pride, the 1st Armoured Division, pushed an offensive towards Khem Karan, with the intent to capture Amritsar (a major city in Punjab, India) and the bridge on River Beas to Jalandhar.

The Pakistani 1st Armoured Division never made it past Khem Karan, however, and by the end of September 10 lay disintegrated by the defences of the Indian 4th Mountain Division at what is now known as the Battle of *Asal Uttar* (lit. meaning — "Real Answer", or more appropriate English equivalent — "Fitting Response"). The area became known as 'Patton Nagar' (Patton Town), because of the large number of US-made Pakistani Patton tanks. Approximately 97 Pakistani tanks were destroyed or abandoned, with only 32 Indian tanks destroyed or damaged. The Pakistani 1st Armoured Division less 5th Armoured Brigade was next sent to Sialkot sector behind Pakistani 6th Armoured Division where it didn't see action as 6th Armoured Division was already in process of routing Indian 1st Armoured Division which was superior to it in strength.

The war was heading for a stalemate, with both nations holding territory of the other. The Indian army suffered 3,000 battlefield deaths, while Pakistan suffered 3,800. The Indian army was in possession of 710 miles² (1,800 km²) of Pakistani territory and the Pakistan army held 210 mile² (550 km²) of Indian territory. The territory occupied by India was mainly in the fertile Sialkot, Lahore and Kashmir sectors, [18] while Pakistani land gains were primarily south in deserts opposite to Sindh and in Chumb sector near Kashmir in north. [19]

Aerial warfare

Further information: Indian Air Force#Second Kashmir War 1965 and Pakistan Air Force#Indo-Pakistani War of 1965

The war saw aircraft of the Indian Air Force (IAF) and the Pakistan Air Force (PAF) engaging in combat for the first time since independence. Though the two forces had previously faced off in the First Kashmir War during the late 1940s, that engagement was very limited in scale compared to the 1965 conflict.

The IAF was flying large numbers of Hawker Hunter, Indian-manufactured Folland Gnats, de Havilland Vampires, EE Canberra bombers and a squadron of MiG-21s. The PAF's fighter force comprised 102 F-86F Sabres and 12 F-104 Starfighters, along with 24 B-57 Canberra bombers. During the conflict the PAF was out-numbered by around 5:1. [20]



The F-86 Sabre was a front-line fighter of the PAF

The PAF's aircraft were largely of American origin, whereas the IAF flew an assortment of British and Soviet aeroplanes. It has been widely reported that the PAF's American aircraft were superior to those of the IAF, but according to some experts this is untrue because the IAF's MiG-21, Hawker Hunter and Folland Gnat fighters actually had higher performance than their PAF counter-part, the F-86 Sabre. [21] Although the IAF's de Havilland Vampire fighter-bombers were outdated in comparison to the F-86 Sabre, the Hawker Hunter fighters were superior in both power and speed to the F-86 according to Air Cdre (retired) Sajjad Haider, who led the PAF's No.19 Squadron in combat during the war.

According to the Indians, the F-86 was vulnerable to the diminutive Folland Gnat, nicknamed "Sabre Slayer." [22] The PAF's F-104 Starfighter of the PAF was the fastest fighter operating in the subcontinent at that time and was often referred to as "the pride of the PAF". However, according to Sajjad Haider, the F-104 did not deserve this reputation. Being "a high level interceptor designed to neutralise Soviet strategic bombers in altitudes above 40,000 feet," rather than engage in dogfights with agile fighters at low altitudes, it was "unsuited to the tactical environment of the region." [23] In combat the starfighter was not as effective as the IAF's far more agile, albeit much slower, Folland Gnat fighter. [24][25] Yet it zoomed into an on going dogfight between Sabres and Gnats, at supersonic speed, successfully broke off the fight and caused the Gnats to egress. An IAF Gnat, piloted by Squadron Leader Brij Pal Singh Sikand, landed at an abandoned Pakistani airstrip at Pasrur and was captured by the Pakistan Army. The pilot claimed that most of his equipment failed and even if he could get some chance on that, the star-fighters snuffed it. [26][27] This Gnat is displayed as a war trophy in the Pakistan Air Force Museum, Karachi. Sqn Ldr Saad Hatmi who flew the captured aircraft to Sargodha, and later tested and evaluated its flight performance, was of view that Gnat was no "Sabre Slayer" when it came to dog fighting. [27]

The two countries have made contradictory claims of combat losses during the war and few neutral sources have verified the claims of either country. The PAF claimed it shot down 104 IAF planes and lost 19 of its own, while the IAF claimed it shot down 73 PAF planes and lost 59. [28] According to one independent source, the PAF flew 86 F-86 Sabres, 10 F-104 Starfighters and 20 B-57 Canberras in a parade soon after the war was over. Thus disproving the IAF's claim of downing 73 PAF fighters, which at the time constituted nearly the entire Pakistani front-line fighter force. [29]



Indian Folland Gnat on display at the PAF Museum Gallery.

Indo-Pakistani War of 1965 76

Indian sources have pointed out that, despite PAF claims of losing only a squadron of combat craft, Pakistan sought to acquire additional aircraft from Indonesia, Iraq, Iran, Turkey and China within 10 days of the beginning war. But this could be explained by the 5:1 disparity in numbers faced by the PAF. [21]

"India retained much of its air force in the East, against the possibility of Chinese intervention, and as a result the air forces were quite evenly balanced in the West." [30]

"The PAF lost some 25 aircraft (11 in air combat), while the Indians lost 60 (25 in air combat). This was an impressive result, but it was simply not good enough. Pakistan ended the war having depleted 17 percent of its front line strength, while India's losses amounted to less than 10 percent. Moreover, the loss rate had begun to even out, and it has been estimated that another three week's fighting would have seen the Pakistani losses rising to 33 percent and India's losses totalling 15 percent. Air superiority was not achieved, and were unable to prevent IAF fighter bombers and reconnaissance Canberras from flying daylight missions over Pakistan. Thus 1965 was a stalemate in terms of the air war with neither side able to achieve complete air superiority. [30]

Tank battles

The 1965 war witnessed some of the largest tank battles since World War II. At the beginning of the war, the Pakistani Army had both a numerical advantage in tanks, as well as better equipment overall. Pakistani armour was largely American-made; it consisted mainly of Patton M-47 and M-48 tanks, but also included many M4 Sherman tanks, some M24 Chaffee light tanks and M36 Jackson tank destroyers, equipped with 90 mm guns. The bulk of India's tank fleet were older M4 Sherman tanks; some were up-gunned with the French high velocity CN 75 50 guns and could hold their own, whilst some older models were still equipped with the inferior 75 mm M3 L/40 gun. Besides the M4 tanks, India fielded the British-made Centurion Tank Mk 7, with the 105 mm Royal Ordnance L7 gun, and the AMX-13, PT-76, and M3 Stuart light tanks. Pakistan fielded a greater number and more modern artillery; its guns out-ranged those of the Indian artillery, according to Pakistan's Major General T.H. Malik. [33]



Tanks of 18th Cavalry (Indian Army) on the move during the 1965 Indo-Pak War.

At the outbreak of war in 1965, Pakistan had about 15 armoured cavalry regiments, each with about 45 tanks in three squadrons. Besides the Pattons, there were about 200 M4 Shermans re-armed with 76 mm guns, 150 M24 Chaffee light tank and a few independent squadrons of M36B1 tank destroyers. Most of these regiments served in Pakistan's two armoured divisions, the 1st and 6th Armoured divisions – the latter being in the process of formation.

The Indian Army of the time possessed 17 cavalry regiments, and in the 1950s had begun modernizing them by the acquisition of 164 AMX-13 light tanks and 188 Centurions. The remainder of the cavalry units were equipped with M4 Shermans and a small number of M3A3 Stuart light tanks. India had only a single armoured division, the 1st 'Black Elephant' Armoured Division, which consisted of the 17th Horse (The Poona Horse), also called 'Fakhr-i-Hind' ('Pride of India'), the 4th Horse (Hodson's Horse), the 16th Cavalry, the 7th Light Cavalry, the 2nd Lancers, the 18th Cavalry and the 62nd Cavalry, the two first named being equipped with Centurions. There was also the 2nd Independent Armoured Brigade, one of whose three regiments, the 3rd Cavalry, was also equipped with Centurions.

Despite the qualitative and numerical superiority of Pakistani armour, [34] Pakistan was outfought on the battlefield by India, which made progress into the Lahore-Sialkot sector, whilst halting Pakistan's counteroffensive on Amritsar; [35][36] they were sometimes employed in a faulty manner, such as charging prepared defenses during the defeat of Pakistan's 1st Armoured Division at Assal Uttar.

After Indians breached the Madhupur canal on September 11, the Khem Karan counter-offensive was halted, affecting Pakistan's strategy substantially. Although India's tank formations experienced some results, India's attack at the Battle of Chawinda, led by its 1st Armoured Division and supporting units, was brought to a grinding halt by the newly raised 6th Armoured Division (ex-100th independent brigade group) in the Chawinda sector. Pakistan claimed that Indians lost 120 tanks at Chawinda. Neither the Indian nor Pakistani Army showed any great facility in the use of armoured formations in offensive operations, whether the Pakistani 1st Armoured Division at Asal Uttar or the Indian 1st Armoured Division at Chawinda. In contrast, both proved adept with smaller forces in a defensive role such as India's 2nd Armoured Brigade at Asal Uttar and Pakistan's 25th Cavalry at Chawinda.

The Centurion battle tank, with its 105 mm gun and heavy armour, proved superior to the overly complex Pattons and their exaggerated reputations. [36] However, in the Sialkot sector outnumbered Pattons performed exceedingly well in the hands of the 25th Cavalry and other regiments of the 6th Armoured Division, which exacted a disproportionately heavy toll of Centurions from the Poona Horse and Hodson's Horse.

Naval hostilities

Further information: Operation Dwarka

Naval operations did not play a prominent role in the war of 1965. On September 7, a flotilla of the Pakistan Navy under the command of Commodore S.M. Anwar, carried out a bombardment of the Indian Navy's radar station coastal down of Dwarka, which was 200 miles (300 km) south of the Pakistani port of Karachi. Operation Dwarka, as it is known, is a significant naval operation of the 1965 war^{[38][39][40]} contested as a nuisance raid by some. [41][42] The attack on Dwarka caused the Indian Navy led to questions being asked in India's parliament and subsequent post-war modernization and expansion, with an increase in budget from Rs. 35 crores to Rs. 115 crores.

According to some Pakistani sources, one submarine, PNS Ghazi, kept the Indian Navy's aircraft carrier INS Vikrant besieged in Bombay throughout the war. Indian sources claim that it was not their intention to get into a naval conflict with Pakistan, and wished to restrict the war to a land-based conflict. Moreover, they note that the Vikrant was in dry dock in the process of refitting. Some Pakistani defence writers have also discounted claims that the Indian Navy was bottled up in Bombay by a single submarine, instead stating that 75% of the Indian Navy was under maintenance in harbour. [47]

Covert operations

The Pakistan Army launched a number of covert operations to infiltrate and sabotage Indian airbases.^[48] On September 7, 1965, the Special Services Group (SSG) commandos were parachuted into enemy territory. According to Chief of Army Staff General Muhammad Musa, about 135 commandos were airdropped at three Indian airfields(Halwara, Pathankot and Adampur). The daring attempt proved to be an "unmitigated disaster". ^[48] Only 22 commandos returned to Pakistan as planned, 93 were taken prisoner (including one of the Commanders of the operations, Major Khalid Butt), and 20 were killed in encounters with the army, police or civilians ^[49] The reason for the failure of the commando mission is attributed to the failure to provide maps, proper briefings and adequate planning or preparation ^[50]

Despite failing to sabotage the airfields, Pakistan sources claim that the commando mission affected some planned Indian operations. As the Indian 14th Infantry Division was diverted to hunt for paratroopers, the Pakistan Air Force found the road filled with transport, and destroyed many vehicles.^[51]

India responded to the covert activity by announcing rewards for captured Pakistani spies or paratroopers.^[52] Meanwhile, in Pakistan, rumors spread that India had retaliated with its own covert operations, sending commandos deep into Pakistan territory, ^[50] but these rumors were later determined to be unfounded. ^[53]

Assessment of losses

India and Pakistan make widely divergent claims about the damage they inflicted on each other and the amount of damage suffered by them. The following summarizes each nation's claims.

	Indian claims ^[54]	Pakistani claims ^[55]	Independent Sources ^{[5][56]}
Casualties	-	_	3,000 Indian soldiers, 3,800 Pakistani soldiers
Combat flying effort	4,073+ combat sorties	2,279 combat sorties	
Aircraft lost	59 IAF (official), 43 PAF. [57] In addition, Indian sources claim that there were 13 IAF aircraft lost in accidents, and 3 Indian civilian aircraft shot down. [58]	19 PAF, 104 IAF	20 PAF, Pakistan claims India rejected neutral arbitration. [59][60]
Aerial victories	17 + 3 (post war)	30	_
Tanks destroyed	128 Indian tanks, 152 Pakistani tanks captured, 150 Pakistani tanks destroyed. Officially 471 Pakistani tanks destroyed and 38 captured [61]	165 Pakistan tanks ^[62]	
Land area won	1,500 mi ² (3,885 km ²) of Pakistani territory	250 mi ² (648 km ²) of Indian territory	India held 710 mi ² (1,1840 km ²) of Pakistani territory and Pakistan held 210 mi ² (545 km ²) of Indian territory

Neutral assessments

There have been several neutral assessments of the losses incurred by both India and Pakistan during the war. Most of these assessments agree that India had a upper hand over Pakistan when ceasefire was declared. Some of the neutral assessments are mentioned below —

 According to the Library of Congress Country Studies conducted by the Federal Research Division of the United States^[63] –

The war was militarily inconclusive; each side held prisoners and some territory belonging to the other. Losses were relatively heavy—on the Pakistani side, twenty aircraft, 200 tanks, and 3,800 troops. Pakistan's army had been able to withstand Indian pressure, but a continuation of the fighting would only have led to further losses and ultimate defeat for Pakistan. Most Pakistanis, schooled in the belief of their own martial prowess, refused to accept the possibility of their country's military defeat by "Hindu India" and were, instead, quick to blame their failure to attain their military aims on what they considered to be the ineptitude of Ayub Khan and his government.

TIME magazine reported that India held 690 mi² of Pakistan territory while Pakistan held 250 mi² of Indian territory in Kashmir and Rajasthan. Additionally, Pakistan had lost almost half its armour temporarily.^[64] The article further elaborates,

Severely mauled by the larger Indian armed forces, Pakistan could continue the fight only by teaming up with Red China and turning its back on the U.N.

• Devin T. Hagerty wrote in his book "South Asia in world politics" [65] —

The invading Indian forces outfought their Pakistani counterparts and halted their attack on the outskirts of Lahore, Pakistan's second-largest city. By the time United Nations intervened on September 22, Pakistan had suffered a clear defeat.

In his book "National identity and geopolitical visions", [66] Gertjan Dijkink writes —
 The superior Indian forces, however, won a decisive victory and the army could have even marched on into Pakistani territory had external pressure not forced both combatants to cease their war efforts.

- An excerpt from Stanley Wolpert's *India*, ^[67] summarizing the Indo-Pakistani War of 1965,
 - In three weeks the second Indo-Pak War ended in what appeared to be a draw when the embargo placed by Washington on U.S. ammunition and replacements for both armies forced cessation of conflict before either side won a clear victory. India, however, was in a position to inflict grave damage to, if not capture, Pakistan's capital of the Punjab when the cease-fire was called, and controlled Kashmir's strategic Uri-Poonch bulge, much to Ayub's chagrin.
- In his book titled *The greater game: India's race with destiny and China*, David Van Praagh wrote India won the war. It gained 1840 km² (unknown operator: u'strong' sq mi) of Pakistani territory: 640 km² (unknown operator: u'strong' sq mi) in Azad Kashmir, Pakistan's portion of the state; 460 km² (unknown operator: u'strong' sq mi) of the Sailkot sector; 380 km² (unknown operator: u'strong' sq mi) far to the south of Sindh; and most critical, 360 km² (unknown operator: u'strong' sq mi) on the Lahore front. Pakistan took 540 km² (unknown operator: u'strong' sq mi) of Indian territory: 490 km² (unknown operator: u'strong' sq mi) in the Chhamb sector and 50 km² (unknown operator: u'strong' sq mi) around Khem Karan.
- Dennis Kux's "India and the United States estranged democracies" also provides a summary of the war, [68]
 Although both sides lost heavily in men and material, and neither gained a decisive military advantage,
 India had the better of the war. New Delhi achieved its basic goal of thwarting Pakistan's attempt to seize Kashmir by force. Pakistan gained nothing from a conflict which it had instigated.
- BBC reported that the war served game changer in Pakistani politics, [69]
 - The defeat in the 1965 war led to the army's invincibility being challenged by an increasingly vocal opposition. This became a surge after his protege, Zulfikar Ali Bhutto, deserted him and established the Pakistan People's Party.
- "A region in turmoil: South Asian conflicts since 1947" by Robert Johnson mentions^[] –
 India's strategic aims were modest it aimed to deny Pakistani Army victory, although it ended up in possession of 720 square miles (unknown operator: u'strong' km²) of Pakistani territory for the loss of just 220 square miles (unknown operator: u'strong' km²) of its own.
- An excerpt from William M. Carpenter and David G. Wiencek's "Asian security handbook: terrorism and the new security environment" [70] –
 - A brief but furious 1965 war with India began with a covert Pakistani thrust across the Kashmiri cease-fire line and ended up with the city of Lahore threatened with encirclement by Indian Army. Another UN-sponsored cease-fire left borders unchanged, but Pakistan's vulnerability had again been exposed.
- English historian John Keay's "India: A History" provides a summary of the 1965 war^[71] —
 The 1965 Indo-Pak war lasted barely a month. Pakistan made gains in the Rajasthan desert but its main push against India's Jammu-Srinagar road link was repulsed and Indian tanks advanced to within a sight of Lahore. Both sides claimed victory but India had most to celebrate.
- Uk Heo and Shale Asher Horowitz write in their book "Conflict in Asia: Korea, China-Taiwan, and India-Pakistan" [72] –
 - Again India appeared, logistically at least, to be in a superior position but neither side was able to mobilize enough strength to gain a decisive victory.
- Newsweek magazine, however, praised the Pakistani military's ability to hold of the much larger Indian Army.

By just the end of the week, in fact, it was clear that the Pakistanis were more than holding their own.

Ceasefire

The United States and the Soviet Union used significant diplomatic tools to prevent any further escalation in the conflict between the two South Asian nations. The Soviet Union, led by Premier Alexei Kosygin, hosted ceasefire negotiations in Tashkent (now in Uzbekistan), where Indian Prime Minister Lal Bahadur Shastri and Pakistani President Ayub Khan signed the Tashkent Agreement, agreeing to withdraw to pre-August lines no later than February 25, 1966.

With declining stockpiles of ammunition, Pakistani leaders feared the war tilting in India's favor. Therefore, they quickly accepted the ceasefire in Tashkent.^[74] Despite strong opposition from Indian military leaders, India bowed to growing international diplomatic pressure and accepted the ceasefire.^[74] On September 22, the United Nations Security Council unanimously passed a resolution that called for an unconditional ceasefire from both nations. The war ended the following day.

India's Prime Minister, Shastri, suffered a fatal heart attack soon after the declaration of the ceasefire. As a consequence, the public outcry in India against the ceasefire declaration transformed into a wave of sympathy for the ruling Indian National Congress.^[75] The ceasefire was criticized by many Pakistanis who, relying on fabricated official reports and the controlled Pakistani press, believed that the leadership had surrendered military gains. The protests led to student riots.^[76] Pakistan State's reports had suggested that their military was performing admirably in the war – which they incorrectly blamed as being initiated by India – and thus the Tashkent Declaration was seen as having forfeited the gains.^[77] Some recent books written by Pakistani authors, including one by ex-ISI chief titled "The Myth of 1965 Victory",^[78] allegedly exposed Pakistani fabrications about the war, but all copies of the book were bought by Pakistan Army to prevent publication because the topic was "too sensitive".^{[79][80]}

India and Pakistan accused each other of ceasefire violations; India charged Pakistan with 585 violations in 34 days, while Pakistan countered with accusations of 450 incidents by India. [81] In addition to the expected exchange of small arms and artillery fire, India reported that Pakistan utilized the ceasefire to capture the Indian village of Chananwalla in the Fazilka sector. This village was recaptured by Indian troops on 25 December. On October 10, a B-57 Canberra on loan to the PAF was damaged by 3 SA-2 missiles fired from the IAF base at Ambala. [82] A Pakistani Army Auster was shot down on 16 December, killing one Pakistani army captain and on 2 February 1967, an AOP was shot down by IAF Hunters.

The ceasefire remained in effect until the start of the Indo-Pakistani War of 1971.

Intelligence failures

Strategic miscalculations by both India and Pakistan ensured that the war ended in a stalemate —

Indian miscalculations

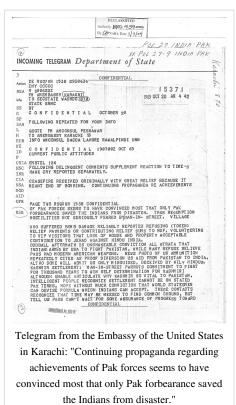
Indian military intelligence gave no warning of the impending Pakistan invasion. The Indian Army failed to recognize the presence of heavy Pakistani artillery and armaments in Chumb and suffered significant losses as a result.

The "Official History of the 1965 War ^[83]", drafted by the Ministry of Defence of India in 1992, was a long suppressed document that revealed other miscalculations. According to the document, on September 22 when the Security Council was pressing for a ceasefire, the Indian Prime Minister asked commanding Gen. Chaudhuri if India could possibly win the war, were he to delay accepting the ceasefire. The general replied that most of India's frontline ammunition had been used up and the Indian Army had suffered considerable tank losses. It was determined later that only 14% of India's frontline ammunition had been fired and India held twice the number of tanks as Pakistan. By this time, the Pakistani Army had used close to 80% of its ammunition.

Air Chief Marshal (retd) P.C. Lal, who was the Vice Chief of Air Staff during the conflict, points to the lack of coordination between the IAF and the Indian army. Neither side revealed its battle plans to the other. The battle plans drafted by the Ministry of Defence and General Chaudhari, did not specify a role for the Indian Air Force in the order of battle. This attitude of Gen. Chaudhari was referred to by ACM Lal as the "Supremo Syndrome", a patronizing attitude sometimes held by the Indian army towards the other branches of the Indian Military.^[54]

Pakistani miscalculations

The Pakistani Army's failures started with the supposition that a generally discontented Kashmiri people, given the opportunity provided by the Pakistani advance, would revolt against their Indian rulers, bringing about a swift and decisive surrender of Kashmir. The Kashmiri people, however, did not revolt. Instead, the Indian Army was provided with enough information to learn of Operation Gibraltar and the fact that the Army was battling not insurgents, as they had initially supposed, but Pakistani Army regulars.



The Pakistani Army also failed to recognize that the Indian policy makers would order an attack on the southern sector in order to open a second front. Pakistan was forced to dedicate troops to the southern sector to protect Sialkot and Lahore instead using them to support penetrating into Kashmir.

"Operation Grand Slam", which was launched by Pakistan to capture Akhnoor, a town north-east of Jammu and a key region for communications between Kashmir and the rest of India, was also a failure. Many Pakistani commentators criticized the Ayub Khan administration for being indecisive during Operation Grand Slam. These critics claim that the operation failed because Ayub Khan knew the importance of Akhnur to India (having called it India's "jugular vein") and did not want to capture it and drive the two nations into an all-out war. Despite progress being made in Akhnur, General Ayub Khan relieved the commanding Major General Akhtar Hussain Malik and replaced him with Gen. Yahya Khan. A 24-hour lull ensued the replacement, which allowed the Indian army to regroup in Akhnur and successfully oppose a lackluster attack headed by General Yahya Khan. "The enemy came to our rescue", asserted the Indian Chief of Staff of the Western Command. Later, Akhtar Hussain Malik criticized Ayub Khan for planning Operation Gibraltar, which was doomed to

fail, and for relieving him of his command at a crucial moment in the war. Malik threatened to expose the truth about the war and the army's failure, but later dropped the idea for fear of being banned. [83]

Some authors have noted that Pakistan might have been emboldened by a war game – conducted in March 1965, at the Institute of Defence Analysis, USA. The exercise concluded that, in the event of a war with India, Pakistan would win. Other authors like Stephen Philip Cohen, have consistently commented that the Pakistan Army had "acquired an exaggerated view of the weakness of both India and the Indian military... the 1965 war was a shock".

Pakistani Air Marshal and Commander-in-Chief of PAF during the war, Nur Khan, later said that the Pakistan Army, and not India, should be blamed for starting the war. [87][88] However propaganda in Pakistan about the war continued; the war was not rationally analyzed in Pakistan, [89][90] with most of the blame being heaped on the leadership and little importance given to intelligence failures that persisted until the debacle of the 1971 war, when then East Pakistan was invaded by India and seceded from West Pakistan, leading to the creation of Bangladesh.

Involvement of other nations

Pakistan and the United States had signed an Agreement of Cooperation in 1959 under which the United States agreed to take "appropriate action, including the use of armed forces" in order to assist the Government of Pakistan at its request. [91] However, following the start of the 1965 war, the United States was of the view that the conflict was largely Pakistan's fault and therefore, it cut all military supplies to the country. [63] However, Pakistan did receive significant support from Iran, Indonesia and People's Republic of China. [63]

Both before and during the war, the People's Republic of China had been a major military associate of Pakistan and had invariably admonished India, with whom it had fought a war in 1962. There were also reports of Chinese troop movements on the Indian border to support Pakistan. [92] As such, India agreed to the UN mandate in order to avoid a war on both borders.

India's participation in the Non-Aligned Movement yielded little support from its members. Despite close relations between with India, the Soviet Union was more neutral than most other nations during the war and even invited both nations to talks that it would host in Tashkent. [93][94]

Aftermath

India

Despite the declaration of a ceasefire, India was perceived as the victor due to its success in halting the Pakistan-backed insurgency in Kashmir. ^[95] In its October 1965 issue, the TIME magazine quoted a Western official assessing the consequences of the war ^[96]—

Now it's apparent to everybody that India is going to emerge as an Asian power in its own right.

In light of the failures of the Sino-Indian War, the outcome of the 1965 war was viewed as a "politico-strategic" victory in India. The Indian premier, Lal Bahadur Shastri, was hailed as a national hero in India. [97]

While the overall performance of the Indian military was praised, military leaders were criticized for their failure to effectively deploy India's superior armed forces so as to achieve a decisive victory over Pakistan. ^[98] In his book "War in the modern world since 1815", noted war historian Jeremy Black said that though Pakistan "lost heavily" during the 1965 war, India's hasty decision to call for negotiations prevented further considerable damage to the Pakistan Armed Forces. He elaborates ^[99]—

India's chief of army staff urged negotiations on the ground that they were running out ammunition and their number of tanks had become seriously depleted. In fact, the army had used less than 15% of its ammunition compared to Pakistan, which had consumed closer to 80 percent and India had double the number of serviceable tanks.

As a consequence, India focussed on enhancing communication and coordination within and among the triservices of the Indian Armed Forces. Partly as a result of the inefficient information gathering preceding the war, India established the Research and Analysis Wing for external espionage and intelligence. Major improvements were also made in command and control to address various shortcomings and the positive impact of these changes was clearly visible during the Indo-Pakistani War of 1971 when India achieved a decisive victory over Pakistan within two weeks.

China's repeated threats to intervene in the conflict in support of Pakistan increased pressure on the government to take an immediate decision to develop nuclear weapons. Despite repeated assurances, the United States did little to prevent extensive use of American arms by Pakistani forces during the conflict which irked India. At the same time, the United States and United Kingdom refused to supply India with sophisticated weaponry which further strained the relations between the West and India. These developments led to a significant change in India's foreign policy — India, which had previously championed the cause of non-alignment, distanced itself further from Western powers and developed close relations with the Soviet Union. By the end of 1960s, the Soviet Union

emerged as the biggest supplier of military hardware to India. [103] From 1967 to 1977, 81% of India's arms imports were from the Soviet Union. [104] After the 1965 war, the arms race between India and Pakistan became even more asymmetric and India was outdistancing Pakistan by far. [105]

Pakistan

At the conclusion of the war, many Pakistanis considered the performance of their military to be positive. September 6 is celebrated as Defence Day in Pakistan, in commemoration of the successful defence of Lahore against the Indian army. The performance of the Pakistani Air Force, in particular, was praised.

However, the Pakistani government was accused by foreign analysts of spreading disinformation among its citizens regarding the actual consequences of the war. [106] In his book "Mainsprings of Indian and Pakistani foreign policies", S.M. Burke writes [65] —

After the Indo-Pakistani war of 1965 the balance of military power had decisively shifted in favor of India. Pakistan had found it difficult to replace the heavy equipment lost during that conflict while her adversary, despite her economic and political problems, had been determinedly building up her strength.

Most observers agree that the myth of a mobile, hard hitting Pakistan Army was badly dented in the war, as critical breakthroughs were not made. [107] Several Pakistani writers criticized the military's ill-founded belief that their "martial race" of soldiers could defeat "Hindu India" in the war. [108][109] Rasul Bux Rais, a Pakistani political analyst wrote [110] —

The 1965 war with India proved that Pakistan could neither break the formidable Indian defenses in a blitzkrieg fashion nor could she sustain an all-out conflict for long.

Pakistan airforce on the other hand gained a lot of credibility and reliability among Pakistan military and international war writers for successful defence of lahore and other important areas of Pakistan and heavy retaliation to India on the next day. The alertness of the airforce was also related to the fact that some pilots were scrambled 6 times in less than an hour on indication of Indian air raids. Pakistan airforce along with the army is celebrated for on Defence day and Airforce day in commemoration of this in Pakistan (September 6 and 7 respectively). [21][111]

Moreover, Pakistan had lost more ground than it had gained during the war and, more importantly, failed to achieve its goal of capturing Kashmir; this result has been viewed by many impartial observers as a defeat for Pakistan. [112][113][114]

Many high ranking Pakistani officials and military experts later criticized the faulty planning of Operation Gibraltar that ultimately led to the war. The Tashkent declaration was also criticized in Pakistan, though few citizens realised the gravity of the situation that existed at the end of the war. Political leaders were also criticized. Following the advice of Zulfikar Ali Bhutto, Pakistan's foreign minister, Ayub Khan had raised very high expectations among the people of Pakistan about the superiority – if not invincibility – of its armed forces, [115] but Pakistan's inability to attain its military aims during the war, created a political liability for Ayub. [116] The defeat of its Kashmiri ambitions in the war led to the army's invincibility being challenged by an increasingly vocal opposition. [69]

One of the most far reaching consequences of the war was the wide-scale economic slowdown in Pakistan. [117][118] The cost of the 1965 war put an end to the impressive period economic growth Pakistan had experienced during early 1960s. Between 1964 and 1966, Pakistan's defence spending rose from 4.82% to 9.86% of GDP, putting tremendous strain on Pakistan's economy. By 1970–71, defence spending comprised a whopping 55.66% of government expenditure. [119]

Pakistan was surprised by the lack of support by the United States, an ally with whom the country had signed an Agreement of Cooperation. USA declared its neutrality in the war by cutting off military supplies to both sides, [5] leading Islamabad to believe that they were "betrayed" by the United States. [120] After the war, Pakistan would increasingly look towards China as a major source of military hardware and political support.

Another negative consequence of the war was the growing resentment against the Pakistani government in East Pakistan (present day Bangladesh), [86] particularly for West Pakistan's obsession with Kashmir. [121] Bengali leaders accused the central government of not providing adequate security for East Pakistan during the conflict, even though large sums of money were taken from the east to finance the war for Kashmir. [122] In fact, despite some Pakistan Air Force attacks being launched from bases in East Pakistan during the war, India did not retaliate in that sector, [123] although East Pakistan was defended only by an understrenghted infantry division (14 Division), sixteen planes and no tanks. [124] Sheikh Mujibur Rahman was critical of the disparity in military resources deployed in East and West Pakistan, calling for greater autonomy for East Pakistan, which ultimately led to the Bangladesh Liberation War and another war between India and Pakistan in 1971.

Military awards

Battle honours

After the war, a total of number of 16 battle honours and 3 theatre honours were awarded to units of the Indian Army, the notable amongst which are:^[125]

- Jammu and Kashmir 1965 (theatre honour)
 Burki
 Kalidhar
- Punjab 1965 (theatre honour)
 Dograi
 OP Hill
- Rajasthan 1965 (theatre honour)
 Hajipir
 Phillora
- Assal Uttar

Gallantry awards

For bravery, the following soldiers were awarded the highest gallantry award of their respective countries, the Indian award Param Vir Chakra and the Pakistani award Nishan-e-Haider:

India

- Company Quarter Master Havildar Abdul Hamid (Posthumous)
- Lieutenant-Colonel Ardeshir Burzorji Tarapore (Posthumous)

Pakistan

• Major Raja Aziz Bhatti Shaheed (Posthumous)

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Aerial warfare

Indo-Pakistani Air War of 1965

The Indo-Pakistani War of 1965 saw the Indian and Pakistani Air Forces engaged in large-scale aerial combat against each other for the first time since the Partition in 1947. The war took place during the course of September 1965 and saw both air forces conduct defensive and offensive operations over Indian and Pakistani airspace. Both countries made contradictory claims regarding the number of losses that they suffered and the number of planes that they claimed to have shot down. Indian losses have been placed at between 59 and 110, while Pakistani losses were between 18 and 43.

Background

The war began in early August 1965 and initially the fighting was confined mainly to the ground.^[1] Later, however, as the war progressed, the war took on another dimension as the two sides began air operations against each other. Although the two forces had previously taken part in the First Kashmir War which had occurred shortly after Partition, that engagement had been limited in scale compared to the 1965 conflict and the air operations that both sides had undertaken were limited^[2] and largely confined to interdiction and other strategic purposes such as re-supply and troop transport operations.^[3] Although there had been one incident where Indian fighter aircraft intercepted a Pakistani transport, there had been no significant air-to-air combat.^[4] During the 1965 conflict, however, the PAF flew a total 2,364 sorties while the IAF flew 3,937 sorties.^[5]

All out War erupted between India and Pakistan, and during the vicious 17 day conflict PAF flew defensive CAPs over its own bases, offensive counter air missions against Indian airfields, and close - support and interdiction sorties, to which the Indians responded in kind. India retained much of its air force in the East, against the possibility of Chinese intervention, and as a result the air forces were quite evenly balanced in the West.

Main battle

The aerial phase of the war began on September 1, 1965, when the Indian Air Force responded to an urgent call for air strikes against the Pakistani Army, which had launched an attack known as Operation Grand Slam. The IAF scrambled 3 waves of four Vampire FB Mk 52s. The first wave strafed Pakistani positions and attacked Pakistani tanks and ground targets. One Vampire was lost to ground fire. The PAF scrambled two F-86 Sabres armed with Sidewinder missiles. These Sabres entered the battlefield just as the second wave of Vampires were coming in for the attack. The post World War II vintage Vampires were no match for the PAF Sabres and in the ensuing dogfight, three of the four Vampires were shot down by the Sabres. As the Sabres cleared out, the third wave of Vampires came in and continued attacking ground targets. [6]

The appearance of the Sabres necessitated a move by the IAF to send the Folland Gnat fighters to the forward base of Pathankot. IAF used Mysteres to lure two Sabres to attack them with four Gnats. One sabre had to go back without entering the fight when the pilot couldn't jettison the fuel tanks. The other one flown by Flt Lt Yusuf Ali, who spotted the Gnats just before attacking the Mysteres, positioned himself behind them. Just as he got his cross-hairs on them, he felt thuds on his own jet from two more Gnats sandwiching him in between as well as informing the front ones to break off. He was surrounded in a cloud of Gnats repeatedly being attacked. The sole lurking Lockheed F-104 Starfighter in the area was pointed to the dog fight by base control along with scrambling another one from base. The first



Indian Folland Gnat on display at the PAF Museum Gallery.

Starfighter crossed through the dog fight at supper sonic speed to strike sheer awe in the adversaries. The trick worked and the Gnats started egressing. ^[7] IAF's Squadron Leader Trevor J. Keelor of No. 23 Squadron claimed to have shot down the F-86 Sabre on that day (September 3), claiming the first air combat victory to the IAF of the war and subsequently received the Vir Chakra. However the sabre he 'shot down' was flown to base in badly damaged condition and rough landed at base without further damage. PAF later released its pictures to disappoint IAF. The Sabre pilot, Flt Lt Yusuf Ali, was given Sitara-e-Jurat for dog fighting with six Gnats (while his wingman was ordered to leave since he couldn't jettison his fuel tanks) and bringing the damaged Sabre back home safely. ^[7]

In the same incident, an IAF Gnat, piloted by Squadron Leader Brij Pal Singh Sikand, landed at an abandoned Pakistani airstrip at Pasrur and was captured by the PAF. The Two Lockheed F-104 Starfighters, that closed in at supper sonic speed, forced the Gnat down. This Gnat is displayed as a war trophy in the Pakistan Air Force Museum, Karachi. Sqn Ldr Saad Hatmi who flew the captured aircraft to Sargodha, and later tested and evaluated its flight performance, was of view that Gnat was no 'Sabre Slayer' when it came to dog fighting.

During the conflict, the Pakistani F-86 Sabre Flying Ace, Muhammad Mahmood Alam shot down nine Indian aircraft as well as claiming two others as 'probable'. Five of Hawker Hunter aircraft were shot down in one minute with four being in first 30 seconds. [9][10][11][12][13]



On September 6, the Indian Army crossed the border at Lahore to relieve pressure off the Chamb Jaurian sector. On the evening of the same day, the PAF responded with attacks on Indian airfields at Pathankot and Halwara. The attack on Pathankot was successful and the IAF lost nearly 10 aircraft on the ground. The attack on Halwara was unsuccessful; two of the attacking raiders were shot down for the loss of two Indian Hunters. Both the Pakistani pilots were killed in the action. One of them was Squadron Leader Sarfaraz Rafiqui who had shot down two Vampires on September 1^[14] while the other was Flight Lieutenant Yunus Ahmed. Before being shot down, Rafiqui shot down one of the Hunters. ^[14] He

was later posthumously awarded the Sitara-e-Jurat and the Hilal-i-Jurat. Both the Indian pilots, Pingle and Gandhi, survived as they ejected near their base. [15]

On September 7, 1965 PAF parachuted 135 Special Services Group (SSG) para commandos^[16] at three Indian airfields (Halwara, Pathankot and Adampur). The daring attempt proved to be an "unmitigated disaster". Only 10 commandos were able to returned to Pakistan, and rest of them were taken as prisoners of war (including one of the Commanders of the operations, Major Khalid Butt), at Halwara and Adampur these troops landed in residential areas where the villagers caught and handed them over to police. [17]

Also on September 7, the IAF mounted over 33 sorties against the heavily guarded PAF airfield complex at Sargodha. [18][19] The IAF lost two Mysteres and three Hunters due to the defence mounted by the Pakistan Air Force's local squadrons. One of the crippled Mysteres got involved in a dogfight with an F-104 Starfighter and shot each other down, both the pilots ejected and the Indian was captured, made a POW and released after the war. [14][20] The Indian pilot, Squadron Leader Ajjamada Boppaya Devayya, was later awarded the Maha Vir Chakra [21] 23 years later after his feat was revealed by an author appointed by PAF to write their story on 1965 war.

September 7 also marked the day when the PAF attacked IAF airfields in the Eastern Sector. During the PAF's raid on Kalaikunda Indian pilot, Flight Lieutenant A T Cooke, engaged four Pakistani Sabres, shooting down one [20][22] while flying at tree-top height [23] and making another a write off in the process.

The war lessened in intensity after September 8 and there were occasional clashes between the IAF and the PAF. Both air forces now changed their doctrine from air interdictions to ground attack and concentrated their efforts on knocking out soft skin targets and supply lines like wagons carrying ammunitions and armoured vehicles. During the conflict IAF Canberras raided a few of the Pakistani bases. On September 10, one Mystere was downed by anti-aircraft fire in Pakistan but the pilot ejected safely. [24]

One PAF F-86 Sabre was downed by anti-aircraft fire on September 13 when it attacked Gurdaspur Railway Yard and its pilot was killed. An Indian Gnat was also shot down by PAF F-86 Sabre, although the pilot managed to eject safely. On September 14, Indian Canberras undertook the deepest penetration of Pakistani airspace of the war, attacking Pakistani bases around Peshawar and Kohat. Rather than bombing the Peshawer airstrip, however, IAF bombers mistook the mall road in Peshawer as the runway and dropped there bombs there by accident. The PAF admits that the IAF came very close to annihilating its entire B-57 bombers. On their return mission, the Canberras were intercepted by a Pakistani F-104, although they managed to evade the Starfighter and returned home safely. However, one Pakistani F-86 Sabre crashed, killing the pilot, while conducting an evasive maneuvere in an attempt to escape pursuit from Wing Commander Bharat Singh, as he tried to defend the Canberra bombers. Singh was later credited with an aerial victory for this incident. Later, one Pakistani B-57 was shot down by anti-aircraft fire over Adampur, although both of its crew managed to eject safely and remained POWs.

On September 15, the PAF employed a number of its C-130s transport aircraft as bombers which proved unsuccessful and two of them were shot by IAF. [25] The following day, one Hunter [14] and an F-86 Sabre [14] were shot down over Halwara. The IAF pilot was killed in the encounter, although the Pakistani pilot ejected and spent the rest of the war as a POW. [26] A Pakistani Cessna was also shot down that day, as well as an Auster observation aircraft. [20] On September 18, one Sabre was shot down by a Gnat over Amritsar, the matter was reported by the Collector, who had witness the entire dogfight. [20] The same day a Pakistani Sabre shot down a civilian Indian aircraft even after the civilian plane indicated its identity assuming it to be a reconnaissance mission. It became even more notable when after 60 years, the PAF pilot wrote a letter to apologize for shooting the aircraft to its Pilot's daughter. [27] The aircraft had been carrying the then Gujarat Chief Minister Balwant Rai and his family. [27][28][29]

On September 19, one Gnat^[14] and two Sabres^[20] were downed over Chawinda. One of the Sabres that were shot down was credited to Squadron Leader Denzil Keelor, ^[20] the brother of Trevor Keelor, who was credited with the first Indian aerial victory of the war.^[30] The following day, another two Hunters^[14] and an F-86 Sabre^[20] were lost over Kasur, Pakistan.

At one stage the IAF was operating 200 air missions simultaneously. IAF Folland Gnats of Nos 9 and 23 squadrons played a significant role in major air battles.

On September 21, IAF Canberras carried out a daring daylight strike into Pakistan at the radar complex in Badin.^[31] The raid proved to be successful. Under the command of Wing Commander Peter Wilson, six Canberras from No. 16 Squadron took off from Agra, over a 1,000 km from Bladin and proceeded towards the radar complex at low level.^[31] About 80 miles short of the target, one Canberra climbed to an altitude of 10,000 feet in order to act as a decoy before returning to base. The other five Canberras continued on towards the target. The flight then separated and four of the aircraft approached the target in two sections, each two minutes apart, at low level before climbing to

7,000 feet from where they carried out bombing runs, dropping approximately 10,000 lbs of explosives. Wilson then approached from the south at an altitude of just 30 feet firing a salvo of 68mm rockets at the radar dome. [31]

On the same day a PAF F-104 intercepted a Canberra bomber on its way back from Sargodha and shot it down, while one Hunter pilot who was the son of Chief of the Indian Army was shot down by anti-aircraft fire, he ejected and was taken POW. The ceasefire was declared on the night of September 22, 1965.

Outcome

There are conflicting claims by either side on this issue. Pakistani sources suggest that Indian losses were in the range of 59–110 and Pakistani losses were around 18–43. [5][33] Recent works have, however, attempted to move beyond the raw statistics of the number of losses each side incurred, arguing that in terms of aircraft lost to sorties flown, the Indian Air Force's attrition rate (1.5%) was lower than the Pakistani attrition rate (1.82%). [5] Arguably this indicates that had the war continued, the PAF would have found it increasingly difficult to sustain operations at the same level. [5] Nevertheless, a similar argument can be made about the IAF also, although it did have a significant size advantage that might have proved telling if the war had been prolonged. [5]

Another factor which makes it difficult to determine the outcome of the 1965 air war is the issue of aircraft lost in the air in air-to-air combat or to ground fire as opposed to aircraft lost on the ground due to bombing. [5] Indian sources claimed that a large number of Indian aircraft losses occurred on the ground during the attacks on Kalaikkunda and Pathankot—up to 60 per cent by some accounts [34]

Results of Air Combat: Indian sources have claimed that India lost 24 aircraft in air-to-air combat and ground-to-air fire, while PAF lost 37 aircraft in air-to-air combat.^[5] Air Commodore Jasjit Singh of India claimed that Pakistan ended the war having depleted 17 percent of its front line strength, while India's losses amounted to less than 10 percent. Moreover, the loss rate had begun to even out, and it has been estimated that another three week's fighting would have seen the Pakistani losses rising to 33 percent and India's losses totalling 15 percent.

Learning the lessons

Much of the lessons of the 1965 war lead India to refine tactics which proved decisive in the 1971 war. Pakistani forces failed to take account of the extent to which they had relied on two factors which the IAF could not take for granted - complete ground based defensive radar coverage and an adequate supply of air-to-air missiles. Much effort was expended in India to remedy these deficiencies before 1971.

With Soviet aid, India established a modern early warning radar system, including the recently introduced 'Fansong-E' low-level radar, linked with SA-2 'Guideline' surface-to-air missiles and a large number of AA guns. By December 1971 the IAF comprised a total of 36 squadrons (of which 10 were deployed in the Bengal sector) with some 650 combat aircraft.

Moreover, the 1965 war resulted in the USA imposing a 10 year arms embargo on both sides. This had no effect, on India, which had always looked to Britain, France and even Russia for arms, but was disastrous for Pakistan, which was forced to acquire 90 obsolete second hand Sabre via Iran, a mere 28 Mirage IIIs from France and 74 maintenance intensive Shenyang F-6s. It was unable to replace losses among its (already weak) force of B-57s, or to acquire a modern interceptor in realistic numbers. ^[35]

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Indian Air Force

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Indian Air Force Active 8 October 1932 - present Country India Size 127,000 personnel approx. 1,380 aircraft Part of Ministry of Defence (India) Ministry of Defence Indian Armed Forces Headquarters New Delhi, India Motto नभःसप् वीपतम Sanskrit languageSanskrit: Nabhaḥ-Spṛśaṃ Dīptam "Touch the Sky with Glory" "The IAF Motto". Official Website. Webmaster IAF - Air Headquarters. . Retrieved 7 April 2009. Colors Navy blue, sky blue & white Anniversaries Air Force Day: 8 October "A Mother in India: 8th October". 22 October 2007. . Retrieved 20 July 2010. Engagements Website indianairforce.nic.in Commanders Chief of the Air Staff (India)Chief of the Air StaffAir Chief Marshal Norman Anil Kumar Browne Insignia Air Force Ensign RoundelRoundelFin flashesFin flashThe IAF Fin Flash Aircraft flown Attack aircraftAttackSEPECAT JaguarJaguar, MiG-27, IAI HarpyHarpyFighter aircraftFighterMiG-21, Mirage 2000, MiG-29, Su-30MKI, HAL TejasHelicopterHAL DhruvDhruv, HAL ChetakChetak, HAL CheetahCheetah, Mil Mi-8Mi-8, Mi-17, Mi-24Mi-25/35Surveillance aircraftReconnaissanceIAI SearcherSearcher II, IAI HeronHeronTrainer (aircraft)TrainerHPT-32 Deepak, HAL KiranHJT-16 Kiran, BAE HawkHawk Mk 132, Pilatus PC-7Pilatus C-7 Mk IICargo aircraftTransportII-76, An-32, HS 748, Do 228, Boeing 737, Embraer ERJ 145 familyERJ 135, II-78II-78 MKI, C-130JThe Indian Air Force (IAF; Devanāgarī: भारतीय वाय, से ना, Bhartiya Vāyu Senā) is the air forceair arm of the Indian armed forces. Its primary responsibility is to secure Indian airspace and to conduct aerial warfare during a conflict. It was officially established on 8 October 1932 as an auxiliary air force of the British Raj and the prefix Royal was added in 1945 in recognition of its services during World War II. After India achieved independence from the United Kingdom in 1947, the Royal Indian Air Force served the Dominion of India, with the prefix being dropped when India became a republic in 1950. Since independence, the IAF has been involved in Indo-Pakistani Warsfour wars with neighbouring Pakistan and one with the People's Republic of China. Other major operations undertaken by the IAF include Invasion of GoaOperation Vijay - the invasion of Goa, Operation MeghdootOperation Meghdoot, Operation CactusOperation Cactus and Operation Poomalai. Apart from conflicts, the IAF has been an active participant in History of United Nations peacekeepingUnited Nations peacekeeping missions. The President of India serves as the Commander-in-Chief, IndiaCommander-in-Chief of the IAF. The Chief of Air Staff (India)Chief of Air Staff, an Air Chief Marshal (ACM), is a four-star rankfour-star commander and commands the Air Force. There is never more than one serving ACM at any given time in the IAF. One officer Arjan Singh, DFC has been conferred the rank of Marshal of the Air Force, a five-star rank and the officer serves as the ceremonial chief. In its publication the Military Balance 2010, International Institute for Strategic Studies (IISS) estimates that the Indian Air Force has a strength of 127,000 active personnel and operated around List of aircraft of the Indian Air Force#Current aircraft1,380 aircraft. However, various reliable sources provided notably divergent estimates of its strength over the years. MissionEvolution of the IAF Roundel over the years:1)1933-1942 2)1942-19453)1947-1950 4)1950 - present "INDIAN AIR FORCE MUSEUM - Heraldry (Badges and Insignia)". Bharat Rakshak. . Retrieved 16 January 2012. The IAF's mission is defined by the Armed Forces Act of 1947, Constitution of India and the Air Force Act of 1950, Air Force Act, 1950. Ministry of Law & Justice. . Retrieved 16 January 2012. in the aerial battlespace, as: "Defence of India and every part thereof including preparation for defence and all such acts as may be conducive in times of war to its prosecution and after its termination to effective demobilisation." Thus, the IAF has the primary objective of safeguarding Indian territory and national interests from

all threats in conjunction with the other branches of the armed forces by defending Indian airspace. The IAF provides close air support to the Indian Army troops in the battlefield and also provides strategic and tactical airlift capabilities. The IAF also operates the Integrated Space Cell together with the other two branches of the Indian Armed Forces, the civilian Department of Space and the Indian Space Research Organization (ISRO) to utilise more effectively the country's space-based assets for military purposes and to look into threats to these assets. "India in aerospace defence plan". BBC. 28 January 2011. . Retrieved 24 April 2009. "India Begins Work On Space Weapons Command". Indo-Asian News Service (IANS). 12 April 2006. Archived from the original on 24 April 2006. . Retrieved 16 January 2012. The Indian Air Force along with the other branches of the Indian Armed Forces provide assistance in disaster relief such as during natural calamities by undertaking evacuation or search-and-rescue (SAR) operations and air dropping relief supplies in affected areas. "Aid to Civil Power". . Retrieved 7 July 2010. The IAF provided extensive assistance to relief operations during natural calamities such as the Gujarat cyclone in 1998 and the Tsunami in 2004. The IAF also provides assistance to other countries during relief activities such as Operation Rainbow in Sri Lanka. History Formation and World War IIA Westland Wapiti, one of the first aircraft of the Indian Air Force. The Indian Air Force was established in British India as an auxiliary air force "HC Deb 3 April 2011 vol 276 cc1473-501". Hansard. Parliament of the United Kingdom. . Retrieved 8 April 2009. of the Royal Air Force with the enactment of the Indian Air Force Act 1932 on 8 October that year "History of the IAF". Official Website. Webmaster IAF - Air Headquarters. . Retrieved 7 April 2009.Bedi, Sanjeev (Summer 2008). "Strategic Role of Air Power". Air Power Journal (Center for Air Power Studies) 3 (2): 27–45. and adopted the Royal Air Force uniforms, badges, brevets and insignia. On 1 April 1933, the IAF commissioned its first squadron, No. 1 Squadron, Indian Air ForceNo.1 Squadron, with four Westland Wapiti biplanes and five Indian pilots. The Indian pilots were led by Flight Lieutenant (later Air Vice Marshal) Sir Cecil BouchierCecil Bouchier. Goyal, S.N. (October 1993). "1939–45 Second World War: Air Force Reminiscences". Sainik Samachar. Indian Air Force. . Retrieved 8 April 2009. Until 1941, No. 1 Squadron remained the only squadron of the IAF, though two more Flight (military unit)flights were added. There were only two branches in the Air Force when it was formed, namely the General Duties (GD) branch and the Logistics branch. During World War II, the red centre was removed from the IAF roundel to eliminate confusion with the Japanese Hinomaru ("Rising Sun") emblem. The Air Force grew to seven squadrons in 1943 and to nine squadrons in 1945, equipping with Vultee Vengeance dive bombers and Hurricanes, along with a transport unit with the surviving Armstrong Whitworth Atalanta A.W. 15 Atalantas until 1944. The IAF helped in blocking the advance of the Imperial JapanJapanese army in MyanmarBurma, where its first air strike was on the Japanese military base in Rakhine StateArakan. It also carried out strike missions against the Japanese airbases at Mae Hong Son, Chiang Mai and Chiang Rai in northern Thailand. In recognition of the crucial role played by the IAF, George VI of the United KingdomKing George VI conferred it the prefix "Royal" in 1945.D'Souza, Bart (October 2010). "Indian Air Force: Down the Memory Lane". Sainik Samachar. . Retrieved 7 April 2010. During the war, many youths joined the Indian National Army. Forty five of them (known as the Tokyo Boys) were sent to train as fighter pilots at the Imperial Japanese Army Air Force Academy in 1944 by Subhas Chandra Bose. "Bharat Rakshak Book Review". Burma to Japan with Azad Hind: A War Memoir (1941–1945) by Ramesh S Benegal. September 2011. . Retrieved 4 July 2010. After the war, they were interned by the Allies of World War IIAllies and were court-martialled. After Indian independence, some of them rejoined the IAF for service. First years of independence (1947–1950) Refugees awaiting Military operations in Poonch (1948)evacuation by IAF Douglas C-47 SkytrainDakota on Poonch airstrip, December 1947. After gaining independence from the British Empire in 1947, British RajBritish India was partition of Indiapartitioned into the new states of the Union of India and the Dominion of Pakistan. Along the lines of the geographical partition, the assets of the air force were divided between the new countries. India's air force retained the name of the Royal Indian Air Force, but three of the ten operational squadrons and facilities, located within the borders of Pakistan, were transferred to the Pakistan Air ForceRoyal Pakistan Air Force. Engineer, Aspy M. (February 1993). "Air Marshal Aspy Engineer's Recollections". Bharat Rakshak. . Retrieved 8 April 2010. The RIAF Roundel was changed to an interim 'Chakra' roundel derived from the Ashoka Chakra. Around the same time, conflict broke out between them over the control of the Jammu and Kashmir (princely state)princely state of Jammu &

Kashmir. With Pakistani forces moving into the state, its Maharaja decided to accede to India in order to receive military help.Lyon 2008, p. 79 The day after Instrument of Accession (Jammu and Kashmir)instrument of accession was signed, the RIAF was called upon to transport troops into the war-zone. And this was when a good management of logistics came into help. This led to the eruption of full scale war between India and Pakistan, though there was no formal declaration of war. Massey 2005, p. 97 During the war, the RIAF did not engage the Pakistan Air Force in air-to-air combat; however, it did provide effective transport and close air support to the Indian troops.Barua 2005, p. 192When India became a republic in 1950, the prefix 'Royal' was dropped from the Indian Air Force. At the same time, the current IAF roundel was adapted. Congo crisis and liberation of Goa (1960-1961) The IAF saw significant conflict in 1960, when Belgian colonial empireBelgium's 75-year rule over Republic of the Congo (Léopoldville)Congo ended abruptly, engulfing the nation in Congo Crisiswidespread violence and rebellion. "The Congolese Rescue Operation". US Army History. . Retrieved 25 April 2009. IAF sent No. 5 Squadron, Indian Air ForceNo. 5 Squadron, equipped with English Electric Canberra, to support United Nations Operation in the Congo. The squadron started undertaking operational missions in November. Singh, Charanjit (Monsoon 2005). "The Congo Diary". Air Power Journal (Center for Air Power Studies) 2 (3): 27-45. The unit remained there until 1966, when the UN mission ended. Operating from KinshasaLeopoldville and Kamina, the Canberras soon destroyed the rebel Air Force and provided the UN ground forces with its only long-range air support force. "Air Force History". Global Security. Retrieved 8 July 2010. In late 1961, the Indian government decided to deploy the armed forces in an effort to evict the Portuguese out of Goa and other Enclaves after years of negotiation. Jagan Pillarisetti. "THE LIBERATION OF GOA: 1961". Bharat Rakshak. . Retrieved 17 January 2012. The Indian Air Force was requested to provide support elements to the ground force in what was called Operation Vijay (1961)Operation Vijay. Probing flights by some fighters and bombers were carried out from 8-18 December to draw out the Portuguese Air Force, but to no avail. On 18 December, two waves of English Electric CanberraCanberra bombers bombed the runway of Dabolim airfield taking care not to bomb the Terminals and the ATC tower. Two Portuguese transport aircraft (a Super Constellation and a DC-6) found on the airfield were left alone so that they can be captured intact. However the Portuguese pilots managed to take off the aircraft from the still damaged airfield and made their getaway to Portugal. Hawker HunterHunters attacked the wireless station at Bambolim. De Havilland VampireVampires were used to provide air support to the ground forces. In Daman, Daman and DiuDaman, Dassault Mystère IVMystères were used to strike Portuguese gun positions. Dassault OuraganOuragans (called Toofanis in the IAF) bombed the runways at Diu, IndiaDiu and destroyed the control tower, wireless station and the meteorological station.Border disputes and changes in the IAF (1962-1971)In 1962, border disagreements between China and India escalated to a war when China mobilised its troops across the Indian border. Pradhan 2010, p. 185 During the Sino-Indian War, India's military planners failed to deploy and effectively use the IAF against the invading Chinese forces. This resulted in India losing a significant amount of advantage to the Chinese; especially in Jammu and Kashmir. Three years after the Sino-Indian conflict, in 1965, Pakistan launched Operation Gibraltar, a surprise invasion into India which came to be known as the Indo-Pakistani War of 1965Second Kashmir War.Qadir, Shaukat (9 September 2005). "Operation Gibraltar: Battle that never was". The 1965 War, 40 Years On. Rediff News. . Retrieved 17 January 2012. "Pakistan ... undertook a guerrilla operation inside Indian held Kashmir with a large number of regular soldiers ... expecting to be welcomed by the local population and raise them up in arms against the Indian government." This was the first time the IAF actively engaged an enemy air force. Pradhan & Chavan 2007, p. xiv However, instead of providing close air support to the Indian Army, Thomas 1996, p. 11 the IAF carried out independent raids against Pakistan Air ForcePAF bases. Sisodia & Bhaskar 2005, p. 82 These bases were situated deep inside Pakistani territory, making IAF fighters vulnerable to anti-aircraft fire.Gupta 1997, p. 43 During the course of the conflict, the PAF enjoyed technological superiority over the IAF and had achieved substantial strategic and tactical advantage due to their sudden attack. The IAF was restrained by the government from retaliating to PAF attacks in the eastern sector while a substantive part of its combat force was deployed there and could not be transferred to the western sector, against the possibility of Chinese intervention. Moreover, international (UN) stipulations and norms did not permit military force to be introduced into the Indian state of J&K beyond what was

agreed during the 1949 ceasefire. Despite this, the IAF was able to prevent the PAF from gaining air superiority over conflict zones. Dixit 2002, p. 149 The small and nimble IAF Folland Gnats proved effective against the F-86 Sabres of the PAF earning it the nickname "Sabre Slayers". Air Marshal Ashok K Goel(retd.). "Sabre Slayers – The Gnat in India". . By the time the conflict had ended, the IAF lost 59 aircraft (24 lost in air combat), while the PAF lost 43 aircraft (37 lost in air combat). More than 60% of IAF's air combat losses took place during the battles over Kalaikunda and Pathankot; where most of the aircraft were destroyed while parked on the ground. Khan 2004, p. 185HAL HF-24 Marut, the first indigenous fighter jet to enter service with the IAF. After the 1965 war, the IAF underwent a series of changes to improve its capabilities. In 1966, the Para Commandos (India)Para Commandos regiment was created. Praval 1975, p. 6 To increase its logistics supply and rescue operations ability, the IAF inducted 72 HS 748s which were built by Hindustan Aeronautics Limited (HAL) under license from Avro.Jones 1985, p. 78 India started to put more stress on indigenous manufacture of fighter aircraft. As a result, HAL HF-24 Marut, designed by the famed German aerospace engineer Kurt Tank, Boyne & Fopp 2002, p. 619 were inducted into the air force. HAL also started developing an improved version of the Folland Gnat, known as HAL Ajeet. "The Folland Gnat / HAL Ajeet". 1 December 2009. . Retrieved 7 July 2010. At the same time, the IAF also started inducting Mach speedMach 2 capable Soviet MiG-21 and Sukhoi Su-7 fighters. "A Whale of a Fighter: the Su-7 in IAF Service". Bharat Rakshak. . Retrieved 5 July 2010.Bangladesh Liberation War (1971) By late 1971, the intensification of the independence movement in erstwhile East Pakistan lead to the Bangladesh Liberation War between India and Pakistan .Sisson & Rose 1991, p. 229 On 22 November 1971, 10 days before the start of a full-scale war, four PAF F-86 Sabre jets attacked Indian and Mukti Bahini positions at Battle of GaribpurGaribpur, near the international border. Two of the four PAF Sabres Battle of Boyrawere shot down and one damaged by the IAF's Folland Gnats. Jagan Pillarisetti. "Boyra Encounter - 22nd November 1971". Bharat Rakshak. . Retrieved 19 January 2012. On 3 December, India formally Indo-Pakistani War of 1971declared war against Pakistan following massive Operation Chengiz Khanpreemptive strikes by the PAF against Indian Air Force installations in Srinagar, Ambala, Sirsa, Halwara and Jodhpur. However, the IAF did not suffer significantly because the leadership had anticipated such a move and precautions were taken. Newsweek: 34. 20 December 1971. ISSN 0028-9604. "Trying to catch the Indian Air Force napping, Yahya Khan, launched a Pakistani version of Israel's 1967 air blitz in hopes that one quick blow would cripple India's far superior air power. But India was alert and Yahya's strategy of scattering his thin air force over a dozen air fields failed!" The Indian Air Force was quick to respond to Pakistani air strikes, following which the PAF carried out mostly defensive sorties. Kainikara 2011, p. 195 Within the first two weeks, the IAF had carried out almost 2,000 sorties over East Pakistan and also provided East Pakistan Operations 1971close air support to the advancing Indian Army. "The War Of December 1971". Indian Air Force. . Retrieved 3 May 2009. IAF also assisted the Indian Navy in its operations against the Pakistani Navy and Paramilitary forces of PakistanMaritime Security Agency in the Bay of Bengal and Arabian Sea. On the western front, the IAF destroyed more than 29 Pakistani tanks, 40 Armoured personnel carrierAPCs and a railway train during the Battle of Longewala. Shorey, Anil (February 2005). "Battle of Longewala: Best of Braves". Sainik Samachar 52 (4). Retrieved 12 April 2009. The IAF undertook strategic bombing of West Pakistan by carrying out raids on oil installations in Karachi, the Mangla Dam and a gas plant in Sindh. Mohan, Jagan. "When lightning strikes". Bharat Rakshak. . Retrieved 12 April 2009. Similar strategy was also deployed in East Pakistan and as the IAF achieved complete air superiority on the eastern front, the ordnance factories, runways, and other vital areas of East Pakistan were severely damaged. "Bangladesh: Out of War, a Nation Is Born". Time (magazine)TIME (Time Inc.). 20 December 1971. Retrieved 12 April 2011. By the time Pakistani forces surrendered, the IAF claimed that 94 PAF aircraft, including 54 F-86 Sabres had been shot down. Wilson 2002, p. 58 The IAF had flown over 6,000 sorties on both East and West fronts; including sorties by transport aircraft and helicopters. Towards the end of the war, IAF's transport planes dropped leaflets over Dhaka urging the Pakistani forces to surrender, demoralising Pakistani troops in East Pakistan. Choudhury, Ishfaq Ilahi. "Air aspect of the Liberation War 1971". Daily Star. . Retrieved 8 April 2009.Incidents before Kargil (1984-1988) In 1984, India launched Operation Meghdoot to capture the Siachen Glacier in the contested Kashmir region. Ives 2004, p. 186 In Op Meghdoot, IAF's Mil Mi-8Mi-8, Aérospatiale

Alouette IIIChetak and Aerospatiale LamaCheetah helicopters airlifted hundreds of Indian troops to Siachen. Talbott 2006, p. 164 Launched on 13 April 1984, this military operation was unique because of Siachen's inhospitable terrain and climate. The military action was successful, given the fact that under a previous agreement, neither Pakistan nor India had stationed any personnel in the area. The Indian forces, facing no opposition, took control over most of the heights on the glacier.Karthikeyan et al. 2011, p. 109IAF An-32s were used to airdrop humanitarian supplies in Operation Poomalai. Following the failure to negotiate an end to the Sri Lankan Civil War, and to provide humanitarian aid through an unarmed convoy of ships, Pillarisetti, Jagan. "Operation Poomalai - The Jaffna Food drop". The Indian Air Force in Sri Lanka - 1987-90. Bharat Rakshak. . Retrieved 17 January 2012. the Indian Government decided to carry out an airdrop of the humanitarian supplies on the evening of 4 June 1987 designated Operation Poomalai (Tamil languageTamil: Garland) or Eagle Mission 4. Five An-32s escorted by five Mirage 2000s carried out the supply drop which faced no opposition from the Sri Lankan Armed Forces. Weisman, Steven R. (5 June 1987). "India Airlifts Aid to Tamil Rebels". The New York Times. . Retrieved 17 January 2012. Sri Lanka accused India of "blatant violation of sovereignty". India insisted that it was acting only on humanitarian grounds.In 1987, the IAF supported the Indian Peace Keeping Force (IPKF) in northern and eastern Sri Lanka in Operation Pawan. About 70,000 sorties were flown by the IAF's transport and helicopter force in support of nearly 100,000 troops and paramilitary forces without a single aircraft lost or mission aborted. "OP Pwan". Know Us. Indian Air Force. . Retrieved 24 July 2010. IAF An-32s maintained a continuous air link between air bases in South India and Northern Sri Lanka transporting men, equipment, rations and evacuating casualties. Mi-8s supported the ground forces and also provided air transportation to the Sri Lankan civil administration during the elections. Mi-25s of No. 125 Helicopter Unit were utilised to provide suppressive fire against militant strong points and to interdict coastal and clandestine riverine traffic. On the night of 3 November 1988, the Indian Air Force mounted special operations to airlift a parachute battalion group from Agra, non-stop over 2000 kilometres to the remote Indian Ocean archipelago of the Maldives in response to Maldivian president Gayoom's request for military help against a mercenary invasion in Operation Cactus. The IL-76s of No. 44 Squadron landed at Hulhule at 0030 hours and the Indian paratroopers secured the airfield and restored Government rule at Male within hours. "Official website of Indian Air Force". . Retrieved 28 July 2010. Kargil War (1999) During the Kargil conflict Dassault Mirage 2000IAF Mirage 2000Hs, along with MiG-27s carried out strikes against enemy positions. On 11 May 1999, the Indian Air Force was called in to provide close air support to the Indian Army at the height of the ongoing Kargil conflict with the use of helicopters. The IAF strike was code named Operation Safed Sagar. The first strikes were launched on 26 May, when the Indian Air Force struck infiltrator positions with fighter aircraft and helicopter gunships. "India launches Kashmir air attack". BBC News. 26 May 1999. . Retrieved 17 January 2012. The initial strikes saw MiG-27s carrying out offensive sorties, with MiG-21s and later MiG-29s providing fighter cover. Camp, Philip. "The Mirage 2000 at Kargil". Kargil 1999. Bharat Rakshak. . Retrieved 17 January 2012. The IAF also deployed its radars and the MiG-29 fighters in vast numbers to keep check on Pakistani military movements across the border.Bammi 2002 Srinagar Airport was at this time closed to civilian air-traffic and dedicated to the Indian Air Force.On 27 May, the Indian Air Force suffered its first fatality when it lost a Mikoyan-Gurevich MiG-21MiG-21 and a MiG-27 in quick succession. According to an Indian reports, a MiG-27 crashed from engine trouble and the escorting MiG-21 was shot down by Pakistani fire while trying to aid the downed pilot. The MiG-21 pilot was killed and the MiG-27 pilot was taken as a war prisoner. Pakistan claims both jets were downed by Pakistani air defence after they crossed into its territory. India claims they were lost over Indian territory. "India loses two jets". BBC News. 27 May 1999. Retrieved 17 January 2012. "Flyer pushes frontier again – Nachiketa returns to area where his plane was shot down". Telegraph India. 22 May 2006. . Retrieved 17 January 2012. The following day, while on an offensive sortie, a Mi-17 was shot down by three FIM-92 StingerStinger missiles and lost its entire crew of four. Following these losses the IAF immediately withdrew helicopters from offensive roles as a measure against the threat of Man-portable air-defense systems (MANPAD). On 30 May, the Mirage 2000s were introduced in offensive capability, as they were deemed better in performance under the of high-altitude conditions of the conflict zone. Mirage 2000s were not only better equipped to counter the MANPAD threat compared to the MiGs, but also gave IAF the ability to carry

out aerial raids at night. The MiG-29s were used extensively to provide fighter escort to the Mirage 2000. Ganguly & Kapur 2008, p. 105 The Mirages successfully targeted enemy camps and logistic bases in Kargil and severely disrupted their supply lines. Jones 2003, p. 97 Mirage 2000s were used for strikes on Muntho Dhalo and the heavily defended Tiger Hill, KargilTiger Hill and paved the way for their early recapture. At the height of the conflict, the IAF was conducting over forty sorties daily over the Kargil region. By 26 July, the Indian forces had successfully repulsed the Pakistani forces from Kargil.Kapur 2007, p. 122Post Kargil incidents (1999-present) On 10 August 1999, IAF MiG-21s intercepted a Pakistan Navy Breguet Atlantic which was flying over the disputed region of Sir Creek. Atlantique IncidentThe aircraft was shot down killing all 16 Pakistani Navy personnel on board. "IAF Scores a Kill !!! Factual Account of Interception". Indian Air Force. . Retrieved 12 April 2009. India claimed that the Atlantic was on a mission to gather information on IAF air defence, "IAF shoots down Pak intruder plane". The Indian Express. 11 August 1999. . Retrieved 25 April 2009. a charge emphatically rejected by Pakistan which argued that the unarmed aircraft was on a training mission. Ian MacKinnon (11 August 1999). "16 dead as India shoots down Pakistani naval plane". The Independent (London). . Retrieved 7 June 2009. Since the late 1990s, the Indian Air Force has been modernising its fleet to counter challenges in the new century. The fleet size of the IAF has decreased to 33 squadrons during this period because of the retirement of older aircraft. Still, India maintains the fourth largest air force in the world. The squadron strength is being raised to 42 squadrons. IAF to have 42 combat aircraft squadronsStructure Ex-Air Chief Marshal Pradeep Vasant NaikThe President of India is Commander-in-chief#IndiaSupreme Commander of all Indian armed forces and by virtue of that fact is the notional Commander-in-chief of the Air Force. Chief of the Air Staff (India) Chief of the Air Staff with the rank of Air Chief Marshal is the Commander of the Indian Air Force. He is assisted by six officers: a Vice Chief of the Air Staff (India)Vice Chief of the Air Staff, a Deputy Chief of the Air Staff, the Air Officer in Charge of Administration, the Air Officer in Charge of Personnel, the Air Officer in Charge of Maintenance, and the Inspector General of Flight Safety. "Branches at Air HQ & PSOs". Indian Air Force. . Retrieved 4 May 2009. In January 2002, the Government of Indiagovernment conferred the rank of Marshal of the Air Force on Arjan Singh making him the first and only five-star rankFive-star officer with the Indian Air Force and ceremonial chief of the air force. "Marshal of the Indian Air Force". Indian Air Force. . Retrieved 4 May 2009. Commands and structure The Indian Air Force is divided into five operational and two functional Command (military formation)commands. Each Command is headed by an Air Officer Commanding-in-Chief with the rank of Air Marshal. The purpose of an operational command is to conduct military operations using aircraft within its area of responsibility, whereas the responsibility of functional commands is to maintain combat readiness. Aside from the Training Command at Bangalore, the centre for primary flight training is located at the Air Force Academy in Hyderabad, Andhra Pradesh, followed by operational training at various other schools. Advanced officer training for command positions is also conducted at the Defence Services Staff College; specialised advanced flight training schools are located at Bidar, Karnataka, and Hakimpet, Andhra Pradesh (also the location for helicopter training). Technical schools are found at a number of other locations. "Indian Air Force". GlobalSecurity.org. . Retrieved 29 June 2010.Operational CommandsCentral Air Command, Indian Air ForceCentral Air Command (CAC), headquartered at Allahabad, Uttar PradeshEastern Air Command, Indian Air ForceEastern Air Command (EAC), headquartered at Shillong, MeghalayaSouthern Air Command, Indian Air ForceSouthern Air Command (SAC), headquartered at Thiruvananthapuram, KeralaSouth Western Air Command, Indian Air ForceSouth Western Air Command (SWAC), headquartered at Gandhinagar, GujaratWestern Air Command, Indian Air ForceWestern Air Command (WAC), headquartered at Subroto Park, New DelhiFunctional CommandsTraining Command, Indian Air ForceTraining Command (TC), headquartered at Bangalore, KarnatakaMaintenance Command, Indian Air ForceMaintenance Command (MC), headquartered at Nagpur, MaharashtraBasesIndian Air Force is located in IndiaAllahabadCentral Air CmdAllahabadCentral Air CmdShillongEasternAir CmdShillongEasternAir CmdThiruvananthapuramSouthern Air CmdThiruvananthapuramSouthern Air CmdGandhinagarSouthwestern Air CmdGandhinagarSouthwestern Air CmdNew DelhiWestern Air CmdNew DelhiWestern Air CmdBangaloreTraining CmdBangaloreTraining CmdNagpurMaintenance CmdNagpurMaintenance CmdCommands of the Indian Air Force The IAF operates over

sixty air bases, with more being built or planned. "Indian Air Force to Establish Missle, Air Base in Rajasthan". India Defence. 6 January 2009. . Retrieved 4 May 2009. Western Air Command is the largest Air Command. It operates sixteen air bases from Punjab, IndiaPunjab to Uttar Pradesh. Eastern Air Command operates fifteen Air bases in Eastern and North-eastern India. Central Air Command operates seven Air Bases in Madhya Pradesh and surrounding states of central India. Southern Air Command, a strategically important Air command, in line with India's latest doctrine of protecting the vital shipping routes. It operates nine Air bases in Southern India and two in the Andaman and Nicobar Islands. South Western Air Command is the front line of defence against Pakistan, this important Command operates twelve air bases in Gujarat, Maharashtra and Rajasthan. India also operates the Farkhor Air Base in Tajikistan. "Asia Times Online :: South Asia news - India's foray into Central Asia". . Retrieved 9 July 2010. Depending on size, a base is typically commanded by a Group Captain or Air Commodore. Wings A Wing (air force unit) Wing is a formation intermediate between a Command and a Squadron. It generally consists of two or three IAF Squadrons and Helicopter Units, along with Forward Base Support Units (FBSU). FBSUs do not have or host any Squadrons or Helicopter units but act as transit airbases for routine operations. In times of war, they can become fully fledged air bases playing host to various Squadrons. In all, about 47 Wings and 19 FBSUs make up the IAF. "Air Force Wings, FBSUs and CMUs". Bharat Rakshak. . Retrieved 10 July 2009. "Air Force FBSUs and CMUs". Bharat Rakshak. . Retrieved 10 July 2009. Wings are typically commanded by a Group Captain. SquadronsSquadron (aviation)Squadrons are the field units and formations attached to static locations. Thus, a Flying Squadron is a sub-unit of an air force station which carries out the primary task of the IAF. All fighter squadrons are headed by a Commanding Officer with the rank of Wing Commander (rank)Wing Commander. "Indian Air Force". 10 August 2009. Retrieved 7 July 2010. Some Transport squadrons and Helicopter Units are headed by a Commanding Officer with the rank of Group Captain. FlightsFlight (military unit)Flights are sub-divisions of Squadron (aviation) Squadrons, commanded by a Squadron Leader. Within this formation structure, IAF has several service branches for day-to-day operations. They are: "Indian Air Force: Career Opportunities". Indian Air Force. . Retrieved 21 April 2009. Flying Branch Flying Technical Branch Engineering Ground Branch Logistics Administration Accounts Education Medical & Dental Meteorological Garud Commando ForceIn September 2004, the IAF established its own Special Forces of Indiaspecial operation unit called the Garud Commando Force, consisting of approximately 1500 personnel. The unit derives its name from Garuda, a divine bird-like creature of Hindu Mythology, but more commonly the word for eagle in Sanskrit. Garud is tasked with the protection of critical installations; search and rescue during peace and hostilities and disaster relief during calamities. "Constitution of Commando Force" (Press release). Press Information Bureau, Government of India. 18 December 2003. Retrieved 25 July 2008.Integrated Space CellAn Integrated Space Cell, which will be jointly operated by all the three services of the Indian armed forces, the civilian Department of Space and the Indian Space Research Organization (ISRO) has been set up to utilise more effectively the country's space-based assets for military purposes and to look into threats to these assets. This command will leverage space technology including satellites. Unlike an aerospace command, where the air force controls most of its activities, the Integrated Space Cell envisages cooperation and coordination between the three services as well as civilian agencies dealing with space. "India goes space". 18 2008. Retrieved July 2010.India war in June 2 currently has to 10http://indiatoday.intoday.in/story/agni-v-launch-india-takes-on-china-drdo-vijay-saraswat/1/186367.html India attains the capability to target, destroy space satellites in orbit remote sensing satellites in orbit. Though most are not meant to be dedicated military satellites, some have a spacial resolution of 1 metre or below which can be also used for military applications. Noteworthy satellites include the Technology Experiment Satellite (TES) which has a panchromatic camera (PAN) with a resolution of 1 metre, "India's spy satellite boost". BBC. 27 November 2001. . Retrieved 31 July 2009, the RISAT-2 which is capable of imaging in all-weather conditions and has a resolution of one metre, Herman, Steve (20 April 2008). "India Launches High-Tech Imaging Satellite". Voice of America. . Retrieved 31 July 2009. the CARTOSAT-2, CARTOSAT-2A "CARTOSAT-2A". Earth Observation Satellites. ISRO. . Retrieved 17 January 2012. (a dedicated military satellite) "NDTV.com: India to launch first military satellite in August". 10 June 2008. Retrieved 18 July 2010. and CARTOSAT-2B "Spy satellite to catch miners, land

encroachers". 12 July 2010. . Retrieved 14 July. which carries a panchromatic camera which has a resolution of 80 centimetres (black and white only). Display TeamsHAL HJT-16 Kirans of the Surya Kiran display team flying in formation.Surya Kiran (Sanskrit for Sun Rays) is an aerobatics demonstration team of the Indian Air Force. The Surya Kiran Aerobatic Team (SKAT) was formed in 1996 and are successors to the Thunderbolts. "SURYAKIRANS". armedforces.nic.in. . The team has a total of 13 pilots (selected from the fighter stream of the IAF) and operate 9 HAL KiranHAL HJT-16 Kiran Mk.2 trainer aircraft painted in a "day-glo orange" and white Color schemecolour scheme. The Surya Kiran team were conferred squadron status in 2006, and presently have the designation of 52 Squadron, Air force ("The Sharks"). "Squadrons and Helicopter Units". Bharat Rakshak. . Retrieved 17 January 2012. Surya Kiran Aerobatic Team is based at the Indian Air Force Station at Bidar. The HJT-16 Kiran is to be replaced by the HAL HJT-36 Sitara. The IAF have already given an order for 12 Limited Series Production aircraft for the Surya Kiran team. "IAF's Surya Kirans to fly Hawk's". 10 October 2010. . Retrieved 10 October 2010. Meanwhile, IAF has begun the process of converting Surya Kirans to BAE Hawks. It will take 2-3 years for the team to completely shift to Hawks.Sarang is the Helicopter Display Team of the Indian Air Force. The name Sarang (Sanskrit for Peacock) is symbolic as it is the national bird of India. The team was formed in October 2003 and their first public performance was at the Asian Aerospace Show, Singapore, 2004. "ILA 2008: Proud as Peacocks". . The team flies four HAL Dhruvs "IAFs Sarang helicopter display team adjudged the best at Berlin air show". 12 June 2008. . Retrieved 20 July 2010. painted in red and white with a peacock figure at each side of the fuselage. The Sarang display team is based at the Indian Air Force base at Air Force Station Sulur, Coimbatore.PersonnelOfficers of the IAF in their uniform.Over the years reliable sources provided notably divergent estimates of the personnel strength of the Indian Air Force after analysing open-source intelligence. The public policy organisation GlobalSecurity.org had estimated that the IAF had an estimated strength of 110,000 active personnel in 1994. In 2006, Anthony Cordesman estimated that strength to be 170,000 in the International Institute for Strategic Studies (IISS) publication "The Asian Conventional Military Balance in 2006". Cordesman & Kleiber 2006, p. 24 In 2010, James Hackett revised that estimate to an approximate strength of 127,000 active personnel in the IISS publication "Military Balance 2010". Hackett 2010, p. 360The rank structure of the Indian Air Force is based on that of the Royal Air Force. The highest rank attainable in the IAF is Marshal of the Air Force#IndiaMarshal of the Indian Air Force, conferred by the President of India after exceptional service during wartime. MIAF Arjan Singh is the only officer to have achieved this rank. The head of the Indian Air Force is the Chief of the Air Staff (India)Chief of the Air Staff, who holds the rank of Air Chief Marshal. The current Chief of the Air Staff is Air Chief Marshal Norman Anil Kumar Browne with effect from 1 August 2011. Officers Anyone holding Indian citizenship can apply to be an officer in the Air Force as long as they satisfy the eligibility criteria. There are four entry points to become an officer. Male applicants, who are between the ages of 16½ and 19 and have passed high school graduation, can apply at the Intermediate level. "Career Opportunities as an Officer: Intermediate (10+2)". Indian Air Force. . Retrieved 21 April 2009. Men and women applicants, who have graduated from college (three year course) and are between the ages of 18 and 28, can apply at the Graduate level entry. "Career Opportunities as an Officer: Graduate". Indian Air Force. . Retrieved 21 April 2009. Graduates of engineering colleges can apply at the Engineer level if they are between the ages of 18 and 28 years. The age limit for the flying and ground duty branch is 23 years of age and for technical branch is 28 years of age. "Career Opportunities as an Officer: Engineer". Indian Air Force. . Retrieved 21 April 2009. After completing a master's degree, men and women between the ages of 18 and 28 years can apply at the Post Graduate level. Post graduate applicants do not qualify for the flying branch. For the technical branch the age limit is 28 years and for the ground duty branch it is 25. "Career Opportunities as an Officer: Post Graduate". Indian Air Force. . Retrieved 21 April 2009. At the time of application, all applicants must be single. "Career Opportunities as an Officer". Indian Air Force. . Retrieved 21 April 2009. The IAF selects candidates for officer training from these applicants. After completion of training, a candidate is commissioned as a Flying Officer. "Career Graph (for Officers)". Indian Air Force. . Retrieved 5 July 2010. Shoulder Sleeve Rank Marshal of the Air ForceMarshal of the Air Force1 Air Chief MarshalAir Chief MarshalAir MarshalAir Vice MarshalAir Vice MarshalAir CommodoreAir CommodoreGroup CaptainGroup CaptainWing Commander

CommanderSquadron LeaderSquadron LeaderFlight LieutenantFlight LieutenantFlying OfficerFlying OfficerPilot OfficerPilot Officer² ¹ Honorary/War time rank. ² Rank no longer exist. |+ Ranks of the Indian Air Force-Officer RanksAirmenA Squadron Leader leading the IAF Airmen during a Honor guardguard of honour ceremony to Lula da Silva at the Rashtrapati Bhavan. The duty of an airman in the Indian Air Force is to make sure that all the air and ground operations run smoothly. From operating Air Defence systems to fitting missiles, they are involved in all activities of an air base and give support to various technical and non-technical jobs. "Central Airmen Selection Board". Indian Air Force. . Retrieved 22 April 2009. The recruitment of personnel below officer rank is conducted through All India Selection Tests and Recruitment Rallies. All India Selection Tests are conducted among 14 Airmen Selection Centres (ASCs) located all over India. These centres are under the direct functional control of Central Airmen Selection Board (CASB), with administrative control and support by respective commands. The role of CASB is to carry out selection and enrolment of airmen from the Airmen Selection Centres for their respective commands. Candidates initially take a written test at the time of application. Those passing the written test undergo a physical fitness test, an interview conducted in English, and medical examination. Candidates for training are selected from individuals passing the battery of tests, on the basis of their performance. Upon completion of training, an individual becomes an Airman. Some MWOs and WOs are granted honorary commission in the last year of their service as an honorary Flying Officer or Flight Lieutenant before retiring from the service. Ranks of the Indian Air Force -Enlisted RanksJunior Commissioned OfficerEnlistedShoulderArmSleeveRankWarrant OfficerMaster Warrant **OfficerWarrant** OfficerWarrant OfficerJunior Warrant OfficerSergeantCorporalLeading AircraftsmanLeading AircraftsmanAircraftsmanNon Combatants Enrolled and civilians Non Combatants Enrolled (NCs(E)) were established in British India as personal assistants to the officer class, and are equivalent to the orderly or sahayak of the Indian Army. "Air HO Communication Squadron". Global Security. . Retrieved 8 July 2010. Almost all the commands have some percentage of civilian strength which are central government employees. These are regular ranks which are prevalent in ministries. They are usually not posted outside their stations and are employed in administrative and non-technical work. "Non Combatant(Enrolled) - Pension Chart". Principal Controller of Defence Accounts. . Retrieved 6 July 2010. "AFRO Career Planning". Indian Air Force. . Retrieved 6 July 2010. Training and education The Sudan Block of the National Defence Academy (India) National Defence Academy (NDA). NDA serves as the joint services academy for the Army, the Navy and the Air Force. The Indian Armed Forces has set up numerous military academies across India for training its personnel. Military schools, Sainik Schools, and the Rashtriya Indian Military College were founded to broaden the recruitment base of the Defence Forces. The three branches of the Indian Armed Forces jointly operate several institutions such as the National Defence Academy (India) National Defence Academy (NDA), Defence Services Staff College (DSSC), National Defence College, IndiaNational Defence College (NDC) and the College of Defence Management (CDM) for training its officers. The Armed Forces Medical College, PuneArmed Forces Medical College (AFMC) at Pune, MaharashtraPune is responsible for providing the entire pool of medical staff to the Armed Forces by giving them in service training. Besides these Tri-service institutions, the Indian Air Force has a Training Command, Indian Air ForceTraining Command and several training establishments. While technical and other support staff are trained at various Ground Training Schools, the pilots are trained at the Air Force Academy located at Dindigul. The Pilot Training Establishment at Allahabad, the Air Force Administrative College at Coimbatore, the School of Aviation Medicine at Bangalore, the Air Force Technical College, Bangalore at Jalahalli and the Paratrooper's Training School at Agra are some of the other training establishments of the IAF. Aircraft inventory The Indian Air Force has aircraft and equipment of Russian (erstwhile Soviet Union), British, French, Israeli, U.S. and Indian origins with Russian aircraft dominating its inventory. HAL produces some of the Russian and British aircraft in India under licence. The exact number of aircraft in service with the Indian Air Force cannot be determined with precision from open sources. Various reliable sources provide notably divergent estimates for a variety of high-visibility aircraft. "Air Force Equipment". Global Security.org. . Retrieved 22 April 2009.Fighter and multi-role combat aircraftSukhoi Su-30 MKI The primary role of the fighter aircraft in the Indian Air Force inventory is to achieve and maintain air supremacy over the battle field. Air superiority fighters are fast and manoeuvrable aircraft designed primarily for

air-to-air combat with limited capability to strike ground targets. Multi-role aircraft on the other hand are capable of conducting air-to air combat and ground attack with equal ease; sometimes within the same mission. This ability of combining different operational tasks offers considerable cost-of-ownership benefits to the operators. "Eurofighter Typhoon, Mission configuration, Swing Role". Eurofighter Jagdflugzeug GmbH. . Retrieved 25 January 2012. The Su-30MKISukhoi Su-30MKI is the IAF's primary air superiority fighter with the capability to conduct strike missions. The IAF have placed an order for a total of 272 Su-30MKIs "Indian Air Force Opts for More Su-30MKI, Despite Problems". 18 December 2011. . Retrieved 27 December 2011. of which 146 are in service as of 2011. "Air Chief flies SU-30 to restore confidence in pilots". 21 December 2011. . Retrieved 27 December 2011. The Mikoyan MiG-29 known as Baaz (Hindi languageHindi for Hawk) is the IAF's dedicated air superiority fighter and forms the second line of defence for the IAF after the Sukhoi Su-30MKI. The IAF operates 68 MiG-29s, all of which are currently being upgraded to the MiG-29UPG standard. Anton Denisov (5 February 2011). "Russia tests upgraded MiG-29 fighter for IAF". en.rian.ru. . Retrieved 9 February 2011.The Dassault Mirage 2000, known as Vajra (Sanskrit languageSanskrit for Thunderbolt) in Indian service, is the IAF's primary multirole fighter. The IAF currently operates 51 Mirage 2000Hs which are currently being upgraded to the Mirage 2000-5 standard. "Two IAF Mirage aircraft flown to France for upgradation". 6 December 2011. Retrieved 27 December 2011.. http://articles.timesofindia.indiatimes.com/2012-02-01/india/31012278_1_rafale-mmrca-project-french-air-force.The Mikoyan-Gurevich MiG-21 serves as an Interceptor aircraft in the IAF. The IAF have phased out most of its MiG-21s and plans to keep only 125 that have been upgraded to MiG-21 Bison standard. "India's Fighter Modernization: Add MiG-29s to the List". Defense Industry Daily. 28 April 2011. Retrieved 17 January 2011. These aircraft will be phased out between 2014 and 2017. "MiG 21s to be phased out from 2014: Antony". The Hindu. 29 Februsry 2012. . Retrieved 29 February 2012. The MiG-21s are planned to be replaced by the indigenously built HAL Tejas. "LCA Tejas makes successful flight". Times of India. 23 April 2010. . "Light combat aircraft flies with near-full gear". Daily News and Analysis. India. .Strike, attack and close support aircraftSEPECAT Jaguar These are military aircraft designed to attack targets on the ground. They are often deployed as close air support for, and in proximity to, their own ground forces, requiring precision strikes from these aircraft. The SEPECAT Jaguar known as Shamsher and the Mikoyan MiG-27 known as Bahadur (Hindi for Valiant) serve as the IAF's primary ground attack force. Naik, V.P. (26 September 2008). "IAF aiming for Diverse Capabilities, says Vice Chief of Air Staff". Air Marshal P V Naik's Keynote Address on Fighter Technology and Advance Systems. India Strategic. . Retrieved 22 April 2009. The IAF currently operates 139 Jaguars "HAL To Tie-Up With BAE Systems For Jaguar Upgrade". 30 November 2009. . Retrieved 23 July 2010. and over 100 MiG-27s. "MiG-27 crashes into field, 1 killed". The Times of India. 25 July 2010. . Retrieved 26 July 2010. Airborne early warning aircraftIAF Beriev A-50EI Mainstay AEW&C These aircraft are designed to detect and distinguish hostile aircraft. The system can be used to direct fighters and strike aircraft to their targets and warn them of hostile enemy aircraft in the area. The IAF currently operates the EL/M-2075 Phalcon AEW&C. A total of 3 such systems are currently in service, with possible orders for 2 more. "Russia sends 3rd AWACS plane to India". 4 November 2010. . Retrieved 4 November 2010. Tanker aircraftIAF II-78MKI These aircraft are used for aerial refuelling which allows IAF aircraft to remain airborne for longer periods, hence enhancing their effective range. Aerial refuelling also allows aircraft to take-off with greater payload (by carrying less fuel during take-off). The IAF currently operates 6 Ilyushin II-78MKIs for aerial refuelling roles. Mukherjee, Amit (29 September 2004). "IAF to get 5th IL-78 refueller soon". The Times of India. . Retrieved 22 April 2009.Kopp, Carlo. "The PLA-AF's Aerial Refuelling Programs". Air Power Australia. . Retrieved 22 April 2009. Transport aircraftIAF II-76 landing at Leh airfield. Transport aircraft are typically used to deliver troops, weapons, supplies and other military equipment to the IAF field of operations. The IAF currently operate different types of transport aircraft for different roles. The IAF operates Ilyushin Il-76s known as Gajraj (Hindi for King Elephant) for military transport roles such as strategic or airliftheavy lift at all operational levels. "Illyushin II-76MD [Candid Gajraj"]. . Retrieved 10 July 2010. The IAF currently operates 17 II-76s. "". 28 April 2010. . Retrieved 2 September 2010. The II-76s are to be replaced by C-17 Globemaster IIIs.Bedi, Rahul (5 July 2010). "IAF completes C-17 test-flight". . Retrieved 21 July 2010. "Indian Air Force :: Illyushin 76MD, 78MKI,

A-50 - Serials". Bharat-rakshak.com. . Retrieved 24 September 2011.The C-130J of the IAF is used by special forces for combined Army-Air Force operations. "Lockheed delivers fifth C130J to IAF". . Retrieved 9 December 2011. There are currently 6 C-130Js in service. "Deals for Acquisition of C-130 J Super Hercules (Press Release)". 7 December 2011. . Retrieved 16 December 2011. The Antonov An-32 known as Sutlej (name of an Sutlej RiverIndian river) serves as medium transport aircraft in the IAF. The aircraft is also used in bombing roles and para-dropping operations. "IAF An-32 planes in Ukraine for upgrades". 21 March 2010. . Retrieved 20 July 2010. The IAF currently operates 105 An-32s, all of which are being upgraded. The Hawker Siddeley HS 748 once formed the backbone of the IAF's transport fleet, but are now used mainly for transport training and communication duties. "HAL HS 748M Avro". Bharat Rakshak. . Retrieved 10 July 2010. The Dornier Do 228 serves as light transport aircraft in the IAF. "Dornier Do-228". Bharat Rakshak. . Retrieved 10 July 2010. The IAF also operates Boeing 737s "Boeing 737". Bharat Rakshak. . Retrieved 10 July 2010. and Embraer ECJ-135 Legacy aircraft "Embraer EMB135 Legacy". Bharat Rakshak. . Retrieved 10 July 2010. as VIP Transports. The IAF operates aircraft for the President of India as well as the Prime Minister of India under the call sign Air India One. "April 1 date for President with business jets". Zee News. 16 March 2009. . Retrieved 8 April 2011. Training aircraftIAF BAE HawkBAE Hawk Mk 132 Training aircraft are used to develop piloting and nagivational skills in pilots and air crew. The HAL HPT-32 Deepak is IAF's basic flight training aircraft for cadets. "HAL HPT-32 Deepak". Bharat Rakshak. . Retrieved 23 April 2009. The HPT-32 was grounded in July 2009 following a crash that killed two senior flight instructors, "IAF gives nod for HPT-32 revival". The Hindu. 16 May 2010. . Retrieved 17 May 2010. but was revived in May 2010 and is to be fitted with a parachute recovery system (PRS) to enhance survivability during an emergency in the air and to bring the trainer down safely. The HPT-32 is to be phased out soon. The IAF uses the HAL HJT-16 KiranHAL HJT-16 Kiran mk.I for intermediate flight training of cadets, while the HJT-16 Kiran mk.II provides advanced flight and weapons training. "HAL HJT-16 Kiran Mk.1/1A". Bharat Rakshak. . Retrieved 23 April 2009. "HAL HJT-16 Kiran Mk.II". Bharat Rakshak. . Retrieved 23 April 2009. The HAL HJT-16 Kiran Mk.2 is also operated by the Surya Kiran Aerobatic Team (SKAT) of the IAF. "SURYAKIRANS". . Retrieved 20 July 2010. The Kiran is to be replaced by the HAL HJT-36 Sitara. "HJT-36 Sitara Intermediate Jet Trainer, India". . Retrieved 6 July 2010. The BAE HawkBAE Hawk Mk 132 serves as an advanced jet trainer in the IAF and is progressively replacing the Kiran Mk.II. The IAF has begun the process of converting the Surya Kiran display team to Hawks. A total of 106 BAE Hawk trainers have been ordered by the IAF of which 39 have entered service as of July 2010. "India inks deal with BAE for 57 Hawk aircraft". The Times Of India. 28 July 2010. . Retrieved 31 July 2010. The purchase of 75 Pilatus PC-7 Mk-II aircraft has been cleared by the Cabinet Committee. The decision has been made in the wake of acute shortage of basic trainer aircrafts. "Cabinet clears Rs 3000 crore deal IAF trainer jet deal". . Retrieved 10 May 2012. On 24th May 2012, IAF signed a Rs 2800 crore deal with the Swiss company to purchase 75 Pilatus Planes. "IAF signs Rs 2,800 crore deal for acquisition of Pilatus planes.". . Retrieved 24 May 2012. HelicoptersIAF Mi-8 at Aero India 2011.HAL Dhruv of the Indian Air Force Sarang (military)Sarang Helicopter Display Team An important objective of the IAF is to support ground troops by providing air cover and by transporting men and essential commodities across the battlefield. For this purpose the Air Force maintains a fleet of helicopters. The HAL Dhruv serves primarily as a light utility helicopter in the IAF. In addition to transport and utility roles, Dhruvs are also used as attack helicopters. "HAL Dhruv". . Retrieved 20 July 2010. "IAF Dhruvs, can carry a 20mm gun plus eight anti-tank guided missiles (ATGMs) or four air-to-air missiles or four 68mm rocket pods on outriggers." 4 Dhruvs are also operated by the Indian Air Force Sarang (military)Sarang Helicopter Display Team.IAF Mil Mi-24Mil Mi-35 Hind Akbar The HAL Chetak is a light utility helicopter and is used primarily for training, rescue and light transport roles in the IAF. "HAL Chetak (Alouette III)". . Retrieved 20 July 2010. The HAL Chetak is scheduled to be replaced by HAL's Advanced Light Helicopter. The HAL Cheetah is a light utility helicopter used for high altitude operations. It is used for both transport and search-and-rescue missions in the IAF. "HAL Cheetah (Alouette II)". . Retrieved 20 July 2010. The Mil Mi-8 and the Mil Mi-17 are operated by the IAF for medium utility roles. The Mi-8 is being progressively replaced by the Mi-17. "Mil Mi-8 (Hip) Rana". . Retrieved 7 July 2010. "Mil Mi-17 (Hip) Pratap". Retrieved 7 July 2010. The IAF has ordered 80 Mi-17V-5s to replace and augment its existing fleet of

Mi-8s and Mi-17s, with an order for 59 additional helicopters to follow soon. Gulshan Luthra and Air Marshal Ashok Goel (Retd) (August 2010). "". India Strategic. . Retrieved 20 August 2010. The Mil Mi-26 serves as a heavy lift helicopter in the IAF. It can also be used to transport troops or as a flying ambulance. The IAF currently operates 4 Mi-26s. "Mil Mi-26 (Halo)". . Retrieved 20 July 2010. The Mil Mi-24Mil Mi-35 serves primarily as an attack helicopter in the IAF. The Mil Mi-35 can also act as a low-capacity troop transport. The IAF currently operates 2 squadrons (No.104 Firebirds and No.125 Gladiators) of Mi-25/35s. "Mil Mi-25 / Mi-35 (Hind) Akbar". . Retrieved 20 July 2010.Unmanned Aerial Vehicles The primary role of Unmanned Aerial Vehicles (UAVs) is to provide aerial surveillance and reconnaissance. UAVs can also be used as unmanned combat aircraft or pilotless target aircraft. The IAF currently uses the IAI SearcherIAI Searcher II "Searcher Mk II Delivered To India". israeli-weapons.com. . Retrieved 22 April 2009. and IAI Heron "Heron MALE System-Medium Altitude Long Endurance UAV". defence-update.com. . Retrieved 22 April 2009. for reconnaissance and surveillance purposes. The IAI Harpy serves as an Unmanned Combat Aerial Vehicle (UCAV) which is designed to attack radar systems. Pandit, Rajat (5 July 2010). "Air Force hunts for combat drones". The Times Of India. . Retrieved 14 July 2010. The IAF also operates the DRDO Lakshya which serves as realistic towed aerial sub-targets for live fire training. "Press Information Bureau". Government of India. . Retrieved 22 April 2009.Land-based air defenceSurface-to-air missile systemsAkash missile. The IAF currently operates the S-125 Neva/PechoraS-125 Pechora MissileUnits.html "Air Force Equipment - Missiles - SAM". Bharat Rakshak. MissileUnits.html. Retrieved 23 April 2009. and the 9K33 Osa as Surface-to-air missile systems. The IAF is also currently inducting the Akash missileAkash medium range surface-to-air missile system. A total of 8 squadrons has been ordered so far. "Akash Missile". 13 April 2010. . Retrieved 17 July 2010.Ballistic missiles The IAF currently operates the Prithvi-II short-range ballistic missile (SRBM). The Prithvi-II is an IAF-specific variant of the Prithvi missilePrithvi ballistic missile. "Prithvi". 5 November 2002. . Retrieved 17 July 2010.Anti-ballistic missile systems The S-300 (missile)S-300 SAM "S-300PMU". Federation of American Scientists. . Retrieved 23 April 2009. serves as an Anti-Tactical Ballistic Missile (ATBM) system in the IAF. The S-300 is also able to detect, track, and destroy incoming cruise missiles and low-flying aircraft. "S-300P (SA-10 Grumble)". . Retrieved 18 July 2010.Future The number of aircraft in the IAF has been decreasing from the late 1990s due to retirement of older aircraft and several crashes. To deal with the depletion of force levels, the IAF has started to modernise its fleet. This includes both upgrade of existing aircraft, equipment and infrastructure as well as induction of new aircraft and equipment, both indigenous and imported. As new aircraft enter service and numbers recover, the IAF plans to have a fleet of 42 squadrons. "IAF fighter squadrons to rise to 42 by 2022; Antony". The Times of India. 18 February 2009. . Retrieved 24 April 2009. Upgrades The air launched version of Brahmos. The IAF is currently upgrading its 69 MiG-29s (to the UPG standard) and 105 An-32s. IAF's HAL HPT-32 Deepak trainers are to be fitted with a parachute recovery system (PRS) to enhance survivability during an emergency in the air and to bring the trainer down safely. There are also a contract to upgrade 51 Mirage 2000Hs Mirage-2000-5 Mk2 its the to varianthttp://weapons.technology.youngester.com/2011/05/2-billion-for-iaf-mirage-2000-upgrade.html 40 Su-30MKIs with new radars, on-board computers, Electronic warfareelectronic warfare systems "Russia wins large contract to modernize Indian Su-30MKI fighters - media". RIA Novosti. . Retrieved 1 July 2010. and the capability of carrying the air launched version of the BrahMos cruise missile. "40 Indian fighter jets to be fitted with BrahMos missiles". Economic Times (India). 22 April 2010. . Retrieved 1 July 2010. "IAF might get missile-armed Sukhois by 2012". The Hindu. . Retrieved 1 July 2010. Under procurement HAL Tejas HAL Light Combat Helicopter The IAF has placed orders for 48 indigenous HAL Tejas aircraft, "Air force to get 20 more Tejas fighter aircraft, says Antony". 7 July 2010. . 72 HAL HJT-36 Sitara trainers and 65 HAL Light Combat Helicopters, "Light Combat Helicopter (LCH)". Knol. 17 August 2010. . Retrieved 23 August 2010. and will order 126 Dassault Rafale multirole fighters, K.V. Prasad (31 January 2012). "Rafale edges out Eurofighter". . Retrieved 31 January 2012. 22 AH-64 ApacheAH-64D Apache Longbow heavy attack helicopters, "US offers famous 'Stinger' missiles to India". 12 January 2012. . Retrieved 1 February 2012. 10 C-17 Globemaster III strategic air-lifters, "India to buy six more C-17 air-lifters from US". Hindustan Times. 4 August 2010. . Retrieved 4 August 2010. 139 Mi-17Mi-17V-5 helicopters,

"IAF orders additional 59 Mi-17 choppers from Russia". domain-b.com. 9 September 2010. . Retrieved 9 September 2010. 12 VVIP-configured AgustaWestland AW101 helicopters, Tom Kington (11 March 2010). "Indian AF To Buy 12 AgustaWestland AW101 Helos". Retrieved 13 July 2010. and IAI Harop UCAVs. Egozi, Arie (9 April 2010). "Indian air force orders Harop loitering munitions". . Retrieved 14 July 2010. The IAF has also ordered 18 Israeli SPYDER Surface to Air Missiles (SAMs). "IAF orders Israeli Spyder Missile". September 2008. . Retrieved 12 July 2010. Pilatus PC-7 is selected for a tender to equip the IAF with 75 basic trainer aircraft. Jay Menon (16 June 2011). "India Selects Pilatus Basic Trainer". Aviation Week. . Retrieved 19 June 2011. The IAF is planning to procure 15 heavy lift helicopters for which the CH-47 Chinook and Mi-26 are being considered. Saurabh Joshi (18 July 2010). "IAF begins Apache trials". Stratpost. . Retrieved 23 July 2010. A Request for Proposal for 6 additional tanker aircraft was issued, for which the EADS A330 MMRT and the II-78 are the competing aircraft. "Boeing withdraws from Indian Air Force tanker tender". Zurf Military Aircraft. . Retrieved 21 January 2011. The IAF has issued a Request for Information (RFI) for 16 C-27J Spartan medium military transport aircraft. "IAF issues RFI for C 27J Spartan". July 2010. . Retrieved 22 July 2010. The IAF also submitted a request for information to international suppliers for a stealth unmanned combat air vehicle (UCAV) "India canvasses global suppliers for stealthy UCAV". 7 July 2010. . Retrieved 12 July 2010. and the Indian Ministry of Defence (MOD) will float a tender for 125 light helicopters. Under developmentHAL HJT-36 Sitara Indian defence companies such as HAL and DRDO are developing several aircraft for the IAF such as the HAL Tejas, Advanced Medium Combat Aircraft (AMCA), "India reveals plan to develop indigenous medium fighter". . 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(a derivative project of the Sukhoi PAK FA) and the UAC/HAL II-214 Multirole Transport Aircraft (MTA) "Russia, India may form military transport planes JV in 2–3 months". . with Russia's United Aircraft Corporation (UAC). DRDO has entered in a joint venture with Israel Aerospace Industries (IAI) to develop the Barak 8 (missile)Barak 8 SAM. "Barak-2 LR-SAM maiden flight later this year". 1 February 2010. Retrieved 12 July 2010. DRDO is developing the air launched version of the Brahmos cruise missile in a joint venture with Russia's NPO Mashinostroeyenia. DRDO is also developing the nuclear capable Nirbhay cruise missile. "IAF Sukhoi Fleet to be Equipped with Homemade Nirbhay Missiles". 21 May 2010. . Retrieved 16 July 2010.FootnotesReferencesBibliographyBammi, Y.M. (2002). Kargil 1999, Impregnable Conquered. Gorkha Publishers. xxviii, 558, 65, 8 p. ISBN 978-81-7525-352-0. LCCN 2003305922.Bajwa, Kuldip Singh (2005). The Dynamics of Soldiering. Har-Anand Publications. 292. 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Pakistan Air Force

Pakistan Air Force						
	Pakistan Air Force Ensign					
Founded	14 August 1947					
Country	Pakistan					
Size	65,000 full-time personnel (including 3,000 pilots) 10,000 reservists 902 aircrafts					
Part of	Pakistan Armed Forces					
Air	AHQ, Islamabad					
Headquarters						
Anniversaries	Air Force Day: September 7					
Engagements	1947 Indo-Pak War 1965 Rann of Kutch Skirmish 1965 Indo-Pak War 1971 Indo-Pak War 1979—1988 Soviet-Afghan War 1999 Kargil Conflict 2001-2002 Indo-Pak Stand-off War in North-West Pakistan (2007-present)					
	Commanders					
Chief of Air Staff	Air Chief Marshal Tahir Rafique Butt					
Notable commanders	ACM Farooq Feroze Khan ACM Anwar Shamim AM Malick Nur Khan					
	Insignia					
PAF Roundel						
PAF Fin flash	C					
	Aircraft flown					
Attack	Mirage 5					
Electronic warfare	Falcon DA-20, Saab 2000 Erieye AEW&C, Shaanxi AEW&C					
Fighter	F-16C/D, F-16A/B, JF-17, Mirage III, F-7P/PG					
Helicopter	Alouette III, Mi-171					

Reconnaissance	Mirage IIIRP, Falco UAV, Jasoos II Bravo+
Trainer	FT-5, K-8P, MFI-17, MFI-395, C-12, T-37
Transport	An-26, Boeing 707, Airbus A310, Cessna Citation V, Gulfstream IV, C-130, CN-235, IL-78MP, Phenom 100, Fokker F27 Friendship, Saab 2000

The **Pakistan Air Force** (Urdu: پاک فضائیه; English IPA: pak^h fiz haripa, Pak Fiza'ya), abbrieviated as **PAF**, is the leading air warfare and the uniform service branch of the Pakistan Armed Forces, primarily tasked with the aerial offense and defence of Islamic Republic of Pakistan with a secondary role of providing air logistics support to the Pakistan Army and the Pakistan Navy. The PAF also has a tertiary role of providing strategic air transport and logistics capability to Pakistan. The PAF employs approximately 65,000 full-time personnel (including approximately 3,000 pilots) and, currently, operates 550 combat aircraft as well as various transport and training aircraft. [1]

History

In 1933, British colonial government of India established the subcontinent's first Air Force station near Drigh Road, now called PAF Base Faisal. In 1934, this element of the Royal Indian Air Force (RIAF) was extended to the North for operations in the North West Frontier Province. Later the RIAF contributed to the defeat of the Japanese invasion during World War II.

1947-1951: The Formative Years

The Royal Pakistan Air Force (RPAF) was established on 14 August 1947 with the independence of Pakistan from British India. The RPAF began with 2,332 personnel, a fleet of 24 Tempest II fighter-bombers, 16 Hawker Typhoon fighters, 2 H.P.57 Halifax bombers, 2 Auster aircraft, 12 North American Harvard trainers and 10 de Havilland Tiger Moth biplanes. It also received 8 C-47 Dakota cargo planes which it used to transport supplies to soldiers fighting in the 1947 War in Kashmir against India. However, the RPAF did not receive all of the



PAF Hawker Sea Fury two-seat trainer

aircraft that it was originally allotted at the time of independence of South Asia.^[2] It started with 7 operational airbases scattered all over the provinces. The prefix Royal was removed when Pakistan became a republic on 23 March 1956. It has since been called the *Pakistan Air Force* (PAF).

Operating these inherited aircraft was far from ideal in Pakistan's diverse terrains, deserts, and mountains, with frequent attrition and injuries resulting. However, by 1948 the air force acquired better aircraft such as the Hawker Sea Fury fighter-bomber and the Bristol Freighter. These new aircraft gave a much-needed boost to the morale and combat capability of the Pakistan Air Force; 93 Hawker Fury and roughly 50-70 Bristol Freighter aircraft were inducted into the PAF by 1950.

1951–1961: PAF enters the Jet Age

Although the Pakistan Air Force had limited funds to utilize and few markets to choose from, it entered the jet age relatively early. Initially it planned to acquire U.S. built F-94Cs, F-86s, or F-84s and produce its order in Pakistan. However, lack of funds and strong British pressure persuaded the PAF to acquire the British Supermarine Attacker. The Supermarine Attacker had a rather unsatisfactory service in the Pakistan Air Force with frequent attrition and maintenance problems. In 1957 the Pakistan Air Force received 100 American-built F-86 Sabres under the U.S. aid program. Many squadrons in the PAF retired its Hawker Furys and Supermarine Attackers, and replaced them with F-86 jet fighters. In 1957 thirty-six year old Air Marshal Asghar Khan became the Pakistan Air Force's first commander-in-chief.

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The F-86 Sabre was in PAF service from 1955 to 1980.

1959: PAF Draws 'First Blood'

On 10 April 1959, on the occasion of the Islamic Eid ul-Fitr festival holiday in Pakistan, an Indian Air Force (IAF) English Electric Canberra B(I)58 entered Pakistani airspace on a photo reconnaissance mission. Two PAF F-86F Sabres from No. 15 Squadron on Air Defence Alert (ADA) were scrambled from Peshawar Air Base to intercept the IAF aircraft. The Sabre pilots were Flt. Lt. M. N. Butt (leader) and Flt. Lt. M. Yunis (wingman)(Later Air Vice Marshal)



Flying Officer Waleed Ehsanul Karim poses in front of his F-86.

whereas Pilot Officer Rab Nawaz was the on-duty Air Defence Controller for this mission. Nawaz successfully vectored both Sabres to the location of the high-flying Canberra. Butt attempted to bring down the Canberra by firing his Sabre's machine guns, but the Canberra was flying at an altitude of more than 50,000 feet - beyond the operational ceiling of the F-86F. When Yunis took over from his leader, the Canberra suddenly lost height while executing a turn over Rawalpindi. Yunis grabbed this opportunity and fired a burst from his 12.7 mm guns that struck the Canberra at an altitude of 47,500 feet and brought it down over Rawat, near Rawalpindi. Marking the first aerial victory of the PAF . '55-5005' was the serial number of the F-86F Sabre that was flown by Flt. Lt. Yunis that day. Both the occupants of the IAF Canberra, namely Sqn. Ldr. J.C. Sen Gupta (pilot) and Flt. Lt. S.N. Rampal (navigator) from the IAF's No. 106 Sqn., ejected and were captured by Pakistani authorities and were subsequently released after remaining in detention for some time. [3]

1965 India-Pakistan Rann of Kutch Border Skirmish

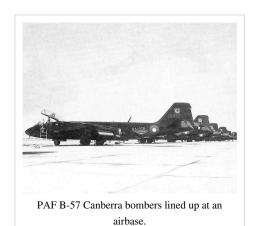
In June 1965, prior to the outbreak of the 1965 India-Pakistan War, India and Pakistan had a border skirmish in the Rann of Kutch region near the south-eastern coastline of Pakistan. The PAF was tasked with providing point-defence to the Rann of Kutch region to prevent the Indian Air Force (IAF) from entering Pakistani airspace and attacking Pakistan Army positions. On 24 June 1965, an IAF Ouragan fighter (Serial No. IC 698), flown by Flt. Lt. Rana Lal Chand Sikka of No. 51 Auxiliary Squadron from the IAF's Jamnagar Air Station entered Pakistani airspace. A PAF F-104A Starfighter from No. 9 Squadron intercepted the IAF fighter near Badin in Sindh, Pakistan. Just as the PAF pilot locked on to the Indian fighter and was about to release his AIM-9B Sidewinder Air-to-Air Missile (AAM), the Indian pilot lowered his aircraft's landing gear (an internationally recognized sign of aerial surrender). The IAF pilot landed at an open field near Jangshahi village near Badin. The IAF pilot was taken prisoner and released on 14 August 1965 - as a goodwill gesture on the 18th Anniversary of Pakistan's Independence Day. The IAF Ouragan fighter was retained by the PAF as a trophy and flown by a PAF pilot to an airbase in Karachi. (NOTE: This event is

not to be confused with the surrender of an IAF Gnat on 4 September 1965 during the 1965 India-Pakistan War, which is on display at the PAF Museum Karachi)^{[4][5]}

1965 India-Pakistan War

The PAF fleet at the time consisted of 12 F-104 Starfighters, some 120 F-86 Sabres and around 20 B-57 Canberra bombers. [6] The PAF claims to have had complete air superiority over the battle area from the second day of operations. [7]

Many publications have credited the PAF's successes to U.S. equipment, claiming it to be superior to the aircraft operated by the IAF and giving the PAF a "qualitative advantage". However some people refute this argument. As per them, the IAF's MiG-21, Hawker Hunter and Folland Gnat aircraft had better performance than the PAF's F-86 fighters. [8] According to Air Cdre (retired) Sajad Haider, the F-86 Sabre was inferior in both power and speed to the IAF's Hawker Hunter. [8][9]



According to Air Commodore (retired) Sajjad Haider who flew with No. 19 squadron, the F-104 Starfighter did not deserve its reputation as "the pride of the PAF" because it "was unsuited to the tactical environment of the region. It was a high-level interceptor designed to neutralize Soviet strategic bombers in altitudes above 40,000 feet." Nevertheless the IAF is believed to have feared the Starfighter^[10] although, according to some, it was not as effective as the IAF's Folland Gnat.^[11] According to Indian sources, the F-86F performed reasonably well against the IAF Hawker Hunters but not as well against the Folland Gnat, which was nicknamed *Sabre Slayer* by the IAF.^{[12][13]}

According to Indian sources most aircraft losses of IAF were on ground while PAF lost most in aerial combat. [14] Even though the IAF flew a larger offensive air campaign by devoting 40% of its air effort to offensive air support alone, according to Indian sources the majority of its losses came from aircraft destroyed on the ground through PAF air strikes. [14] The PAF without doubt, had achieved far more in terms of enemy aircraft destroyed on the ground but the IAF had achieved much more in the close support role. [14]

During the last days of the war Pakistani aircraft flew over Indian cities and airbases without any response from the opposing side. Thus the outnumbered PAF emerged triumphant over a four times larger force, its air defence controllers, engineers, logisticians and hands just as much the heroes as its pilots. At the end of the war, India had lost 110 aircraft with 19 damaged, not including those destroyed on the ground at night, against a loss of 16 PAF planes.^[15]

1967 The Six-Day War

During this conflict the PAF sent personnel to Egypt, Jordan and Syria to support the Arabs in their battle against the Israelis. PAF pilots managed to shoot down ten Israeli aircraft, including Mirages, Mystères and Vautours, without losses on their own side. The PAF pilots operated with Egyptian, Jordanese and Iraqi combat aircraft. [16]

1971 India-Pakistan War

In December 1971, India and Pakistan went to war over East Pakistan. At the start of the war, the PAF inventory contained around 270 combat aircraft while the IAF had over 1,200 - outnumbering the PAF 4:1 in West Pakistan and 10:1 in East Pakistan. [17]

One of the major operations of the war by PAF was Operation Chengiz Khan which inflicted heavy damages to IAF with all PAF fighters landing home unscratched. [18][19][20]

At the end of the war, the Indian Air Force claimed that it had shot down 94 PAF aircraft (including 54 F-86 Sabres) compared to $44^{[21]}$ to $130^{[15]}$ IAF aircraft losses. A later research, conducted by B. Harry, reported that the overall attrition rate (losses per 100 sorties) was 0.48 for the IAF and 1.42 for the PAF, [22] the PAF flying 2914 combat sorties while the IAF flew 7,346 combat sorties [23][24] during the conflict. [25]

Close air support to the Pakistan Army was unexpectedly effective and the PAF is widely considered to have neutralized the large difference in military strength of India and Pakistan. [7]

1973 Yom Kippur War

During this war 16 PAF pilots volunteered to leave for the Middle East in order to support Egypt and Syria but by the time they arrived Egypt had already agreed on a cease-fire. Syria remained in a state of war against Israel so the PAF pilots became instructors there and formed the A-flight of 67 Squadron at Dumayr AB. Later on PAF pilot Flt. Lt. Sattar Alvi was honoured by the Syrian government.^[16]

1979–1988 Soviet-Afghan War

In 1979, the PAF's Chief of Air Staff, Air Chief Marshal Anwar Shamim, was told by then President, and Chief of Army Staff General Zia-ul-Haq, that Pakistan had reliable intels on Indian plans to attack and destroy the Pakistan's nuclear research facilities at Kahuta. ACM Shamim told General Zia that, "Indian aircraft could reach the area in 3 minutes whereas the PAF would take 8 minutes, allowing the Indians to attack the facility and return before the PAF could defend it". Because Kahuta was close to the Indian border it was decided that the best way to deter an Indian attack would be to procure new advanced fighters and weaponry. These could be used to mount a retaliatory attack on India's nuclear research facilities at Trombay in the event of an Indian attack on Kahuta. It was decided the most suitable aircraft would be the F-16 Fighting Falcon, which the United States eventually agreed to supply after the PAF refused to purchase the F-5E and F-5G. In 1983, when the first batch of F-16s reached Pakistan, ACM Shamim informed Zia of the PAF's capability to respond to an attack on the nuclear research facilities at Kahuta. [26][27]

A letter of agreement for up to 28 F-16A's and 12 F-16B's was signed December 1981. The contracts, *Peace Gate I* and *Peace Gate II*, were for 6 and 34 Block 15 models respectively which would be powered by the F100-PW-200 engine. The fist *Peace Gate I* aircraft was accepted at Fort Worth in October 1982. Two F-16A and four F-16B were delivered to Pakistan in 1983, the first F-16 arriving at PAF Base Sargodha (now known as PAF Base Mushaf) on 15 January 1983 flown by Squadron Leader Shahid Javed. The 34 remaining *Peace Gate II* aircraft were delivered between 1983 and 1987. [28][29] Six F-16A and four F-16B Block 15 OCU models were ordered as attrition replacements in December 1988 under the *Peace Gate III* contract. Another 60 F-16A/B were ordered in September 1989 under *Peace Gate IV*, but were later embargoed.

The Soviet invasion of Afghanistan in 1979, in support of the pro-Soviet government in Kabul, which was being hard-pressed by Mujaheddin rebel forces, marked the start of a decade-long occupation. Mujaheddin rebels continued to harass the occupying Soviet military force as well as the forces of the Afghan regime that it was supporting. The war soon spilled over into neighboring Pakistan, with a large numbers of refugees fleeing to camps across the border in an attempt to escape the conflict. In addition, many of the rebels used Pakistan as a sanctuary from which to carry out forays into Afghanistan, and a steady flow of US-supplied arms were carried into Afghanistan from staging areas in Pakistan near the border. This inevitably resulted in border violations by Soviet and Afghan aircraft attempting to interdict these operations.

Between May 1986 and November 1988,^[30] PAF F-16s have shot down at least eight intruders from Afghanistan. The first three of these (one Su-22, one probable Su-22, and one An-26) were shot down by two pilots from No. 9 Squadron. Pilots of No. 14 Squadron destroyed the remaining five intruders (two Su-22s, two MiG-23s, and one Su-25).^[31] Most of these kills were by the AIM-9 Sidewinder, but at least one (a Su-22) was destroyed by cannon fire. Flight Lieutenant Khalid Mahmoud is credited with three of these kills. One F-16 was lost in these battles during an encounter between two F-16s and four Soviet Air Force MiG 23s on 29 April 1987. The pilot, Flight

Lieutenant Shahid Sikandar Khan, ejected safely. [32]

In 1985, Pakistan Air Force selected ATLIS II for its F-16 aircraft, making it the first non-European operator of this system. ATLIS-II pod is carried on the 5L intake station on the F-16. First public demonstration of dropping Laser Guided Bombs Laser guided bomb with ATLIS II was seen in Exercise High Mark 1989. Since then, ATLIS II has been a key element of PAF's precision strike capability. Over the years precision targeting has been a distinct phenomenon over-viewed regularly in PAF's operational exercises. [33]

The PAF is believed to have evaluated the Dassault Mirage 2000 in early 1981 and was planning to evaluate the F-16 Fighting Falcon afterwards. [34]

Project Sabre II was initiated by the PAF in 1987 and was aimed at developing a replacement for the aging Shenyang F-6 fleet. The Pak-American relationship were at a high during the Afghan-Soviet war, and Grumman Aerospace was asked to conduct a design study and consult on this project, with Pakistan and China being the expected end-users. However, after the Afghan-Soviet war ended, the subsequent US-imposed sanctions on Pakistan, and those on China resulted in Grumman Aerospace backing out, and the project was abandoned. The Chengdu F-7P was introduced in 1988 to replace the F-6.

1990-2001: The Lost Decade

Pakistan Air Force



After the Pressler amendment was passed, the U.S. placed sanctions and an arms embargo on Pakistan on 6 October 1990 due to the country's continued nuclear weapons programme. All eleven *Peace Gate III* F-16s, along with 7 F-16A and 10 F-16B of the 60 *Peace Gate IV* F-16s, which had been built by the end of 1994 were embargoed and put into storage in the United States. [28][29]

Desperate for a new high-tech combat aircraft, between late 1990 and 1993 the PAF evaluated the European Panavia Tornado MRCA (multi-role combat aircraft) and rejected it. The Mirage 2000E and an offer from Poland for the supply of MiG-29 and Su-27 were also considered but nothing materialised. In 1992 the PAF again looked at the Mirage 2000, reviving a proposal from the early 1980s to procure around 20-40 aircraft, but again a sale did not occur because France did not want to sell a fully capable version due to political reasons. In August 1994 the PAF was offered the Saab JAS-39 Gripen by Sweden, but again the sale did not occur because 20% of the Gripen's components were from the U.S. and Pakistan was still under U.S. sanctions. [35]

In mid-1992 Pakistan was close to signing a contract for the supply of 40 Dassault Mirage 2000, equipped with Thomson-CSF RDM/7 radars, from France. [36]

In mid-1994 it was reported that the Russian manufacturers Sukhoi and Mikoyan were offering the Su-27 and MiG-29.^[37] But Pakistan was later reported to be negotiating for supply of the Dassault Mirage 2000-5.^[38] French and Russian teams visited Pakistan on 27 November 1994 and it was speculated that interest in the Russian aircraft

was to pressure France into reducing the price of the Mirage 2000. Stated requirement was for up to 40 aircraft. [39]

1999 India-Pakistan Kargil Conflict

The Pakistan Air Force (PAF) did not see active combat during the low-intensity Kargil Conflict between India and Pakistan during the summer of 1999 but remained on high air defence alert (ADA) and performed F-16 and F-7MP combat air patrols (CAPs) near the eastern border with India. The PAF closely monitored and tracked the IAF's movements near the Line of Control in Kashmir as well as the India-Pakistan international border.

2008 Air Alert

After the 2008 Bombay attacks PAF was put on high alert and asked to carry out combat patrols. PAF was put on high alert after the Indian Foreign Minister's threat and denial phone call incident. [40][41]

Pakistani press reported an outstanding order to launch a counter attack in case of an air attack from India after Indian Foreign Minister Pranab Mukherjee threatened Pakistani President in rough tone. [40][41]

On the morning of 14 December Indian aircraft started moving towards Pakistan, PAF moved swiftly and intercepted them before they entered international borders. Two of the aircraft did cross the border but Indian aircraft managed to turn back. PAF was ordered to carry on the defensive combat patrols but avoid hostile action unless further hostile action was to take place. [42]

2011 Abottabad Operation

An initial investigation report revealed that the Pakistan Air Force (PAF) reported the movement of some half-a-dozen planes near the Jalalabad border at 11 pm before the US helicopters entered Abbottabad to kill Osama bin Laden. One aircraft was identified as a US AWACS and the remaining five were recognised as F-18 jets of the US. These planes flew near the Pakistani border, but did not cross into the airspace of Pakistan, PAF was working under the peace time conditions prior to May 2 incident on the eastern border. Defence Secretary Lt-Gen (retd) Syed Athar Ali provided a detailed statement explaining the salient features of Pakistan's defence policy. He apprised the commission that none of the government departments including the ministry of defence, the Joint Staff Headquarters or any military service ever considered the US or Afghanistan a direct threat, aid an official handout issued after the meeting. On learning about the intrusion, The PAF Jets were scrambled and PAF immediately took adequate operational measures as per standard operating procedure.

The PAF aircraft continued their presence in Abbottabad area till early morning and later returned to their air bases.^[45]

Counter-insurgency Operations and Modernization

Counter-insurgency operations

The Pakistan Army faced several problems during its 2009 offensive against the Taliban in north-west Pakistan. Hundreds of thousands of Pakistanis vacated the area when the offensive was announced and, eventually, over 2 million had to be accommodated in refugee camps. The offensive was to be completed as quickly as possible to allow the refugees to return to their homes but the army's fleet attack helicopters were not sufficient to provide adequate support to the infantry. The PAF was sent into action against the Taliban to make up for the lack of helicopter gunships. Because the PAF was trained and equipped to fight a conventional war, a new "counter-terrorist doctrine" had to be improvised. [46]

The PAF's *Saffron Bandit 2009/2010* exercise focused on extensive training of combat personnel to undertake COIN operations. New equipment was inducted to improve the PAF's joint intelligence, surveillance and reconnaissance (ISR) capabilities. A C-130 transport aircraft was indigenously modified for day/night ISR operations. [46][47]

The PAF had initially been forced to use Google Earth for reconnaissance imagery until high resolution infra-red sensors were provided by the U.S. prior to the army's 2009 campaign in the Swat valley. These were installed on around 10 of the PAF's F-16 Fighting Falcon fighters and used to gather detailed reconnaissance imagery of the entire valley. During close air support missions for Pak Army from late 2008 to mid-2009, PAF conducted more than 5,500 bombing missions and dropped 10,600 bombs in northwest tribal areas. ^[48] Use of laser-guided bombs was increased to 80% of munitions used, as compared to 40% in the previous 2008 Bajaur campaign. A small corps of ground spotters were trained and used by the PAF, in addition to PA spotters, to identify high value targets. ^[49]

Prior to the PA's offensive into South Waziristan the PAF attacked militant infrastructure with 500 lb and 2000 lb bombs. [49]

A number of civilian deaths occurred during PAF air strikes on 10 April 2010 in the Khyber tribal region. According to a Pakistani military source, the first bombing was targeted at a gathering of militants in a compound. Local people, who had quickly moved onto the scene to recover the dead and wounded, were then killed during a second air strike. There was no confirmed death toll but at least 30 civilian deaths had occurred according to the military source, whereas a local official stated at least 73 locals, including women and children, were killed. [50] A six-member committee of tribal elders from the area, tasked with finding the exact number of civilian casualties, reported that 61 civilians were killed and 21 wounded. This was not confirmed by military or political leaders but Pakistan's Chief of Army Staff, General Ashfaq Kayani, gave a public apology on 17 April. [51][52] It is reported that BBC news and several other media correspondences were not allowed to take interviews from injured which makes the whole episode more mysterious. [53]

Modernisation and acquisitions

In light of Pakistan's significant contribution to the War on Terror, [54][55] the United States and Western European countries, namely Germany and France, lifted their defense related sanctions on Pakistan; enabling the country to once again seek advanced Western military hardware. Since the lifting of sanctions, the Pakistan Air Force (PAF) became heavily active in evaluating potential military hardware such as new fighter aircraft, radars and land based air-defense systems. However the urgent relief needed in Kashmir after the 2005 Kashmir earthquake forced the Pakistani military to stall its modernisation programme so it could divert its resources for fuel and operations during the rescue efforts.



The first F-16D Block 52+ fighter of PAF, rolled out on 13 October 2009, undergoing flight testing in the U.S. prior to delivery.

The modernisation stall ended in April 2006 when the Pakistani cabinet approved the PAF's proposals to procure new aircraft and systems from several sources, including modern combat aircraft from the U.S. and China. The AFFDP 2019 (Armed Forces Development Programme 2019) would oversee the modernisation of the Pakistan Air Force from 2006 to 2019. [56]

The Bush administration on July 24, 2008 informed the US Congress it plans to shift nearly \$230 million of \$300 million in aid from counterterrorism programs to upgrading Pakistan's aging F-16s. [57] The Bush administration previously announced on June 27, 2008 it was proposing to sell Pakistan ITT Corporation's electronic warfare gear valued at up to \$75 million to enhance Islamabad's existing F-16s. [58] Pakistan has asked about buying as many as 21 AN/ALQ-211(V)9 Advanced Integrated Defensive Electronic Warfare Suite pods, or AIDEWS, and related equipment. [59] The proposed sale will ensure that the existing fleet is "compatible" with new F-16 Block 50/52 fighters being purchased by Islamabad.

After 9/11 the U.S. and Pakistan began discussing the release of the embargoed F-16s and a purchase of new aircraft. Of the 28 F-16A/B built under the *Peace Gate III/IV* contracts and embargoed in 1990, 14 delivered as EDA (Excess Defense Articles) from 2005 to 2008., [60] two of which were delivered on 10 July 2007. [61]

Between 2005 and 2008, 14 F-16A/B Block 15 OCU fighters were delivered to the PAF under renewed post-9/11 ties between the U.S. and Pakistan. These had originally been built for Pakistan under the Peace Gate III/IV contracts but were never delivered due to the U.S. arms embargo imposed in 1990. [62]

To upgrade the F-16A/B fleet, 32 Falcon STAR kits were purchased for the original *Peace Gate 1* aircraft and 35 Mid-Life Update (MLU) kits were ordered, with 11 more MLU kits optional, in . 4 F-16A/B being upgraded in the U.S. to F-16AM/BM, delivery expected December 2011. [60] F-16A/B in PAF service to be upgraded starting October 2010 by Turkish Aerospace Industries, 1 per month. [63][64]

The *Peace Drive I* contract for 12 F-16C and 6 F-16D Block 52+ (Advanced Block 52) aircraft, powered by F100-PW-229 engines was signed on 30 September 2006. The first F-16 to be completed, an F-16D, was rolled out on 13 October 2009 and began flight testing. [67][68][69][70][71] The first batch of F-16C/D Block 52+, two F-16D and one F-16C, landed at PAF Base Shahbaz, Jacobabad, on 26 June 2010 [72][73] and one more F-16C was received by 5 July 2010. [74]

On 13 December 2008, the Government of Pakistan stated that two Indian Air Force aircraft were intercepted by the PAF kilometres within Pakistani airspace. This charge was denied by the Indian government.^[75]

During talks with a delegation from the French Senate on Monday 28 September 2009, Prime Minister Yousuf Raza Gilani stated that the PAF had used most of its stockpile of laser-guided munitions against militants in the Malakand and FATA regions and that replacements for such types of equipment were urgently required. ^[76]

December 2009 saw the delivery of the PAF's first Saab 2000 Erieye AEW&C from Sweden and II-78MP Midas aerial refuelling tanker/military transport aircraft from Ukraine. [77][78][79]

The PAF is reported to be considering purchasing the Hongdu L-15 advanced jet trainer to train pilots for high-tech fighters such as the FC-20. Extensive evaluations of the aircraft took place in Pakistan during December 2009. [80][81]

On 26 June 2010 the first batch of 3 F-16C/D Block 52+ fighters were delivered to PAF Base Shahbaz, Jacobabad. [82] According to Air Chief Marshal Rao Qamar Suleman (the then Chief of Air Staff) the new fighters would eliminate the PAF's limitations in precision night-time strike operations, [83] the existing capability being based on around 34 Dassault Mirage 5 fighters upgraded with new avionics for night-time precision strike missions under the Retrofit Of Strike Element (ROSE) programme during 1999-2004. [84][85][86] SABIR (Special Airborne Mission Installation & Response System) which is a FLIR System that has Brite Star II and Star Safire III EO/IR sensors installed on the one C130. (this a 'bolt on system' and is installed in place of the parachute door) This system was extensively used during operation in FATA.

Exercises

The PAF sent a contingent of six F-16A/B fighters to the international Anatolian Eagle 2004 exercise in Turkey. [87][88]

After around 1 year of planning, in 2005 the PAF launched the High Mark 2005 exercise which lasted for one month and also involved the Pakistan Army and Pakistan Navy. The scenario saw two opposing forces, Blueland and Foxland, engaging in simulated combat involving both offensive and defensive operations. It was stated that the exercise would have 3 stages and PAF aircraft would fly 8200 sorties. Involvement of army and navy units was aimed at providing more realistic operational scenarios. High Mark 2005 followed the Tempest-1 exercise which was focused purely on air power but differed in terms of duration, intensity and complexity of air operations. [89]



A PAF F-7PG flies alongside a Mirage 2000-9 and F-16E/F Block 60 fighters of the UAEAF and a RJAF F-16 during ATLC 2009.

A contingent of six F-16A/B fighters was sent to Turkey's international Anatolian Eagle 2006 exercise. In 2008 the Turkish Air Force sent five F-16C/D fighters and 50 personnel of 191 *Kobras* Filo (191 *Cobras* Squadron) to

Pakistan to take part in the joint Operation Indus Viper 2008 exercise at PAF Base Mushaf (Sargodha). [88]

In the summer of 2005 a PAF team of 20 airmen, including pilots, navigators, engineers, maintenance technicians and a C-130E was sent to the U.S. to take part in the AMC (Air Mobility Command) Rodeo. [90] The PAF later took part in the July 2007 AMC Rodeo. [91][92]



A PAF Mirage III of No. 7 *Bandits* Squadron alongside a US Navy F-18 and F-16s of the U.S.A.F. and R.J.A.F.

In 2009, while undertaking combat operations against militants in FATA and Swat, the PAF initiated the Saffron Bandit exercise with the aim of training the PAF's entire combat force to undertake such anti-terrorist operations. [93][94]

In December 2009 the PAF sent six Chengdu F-7PG fighters, of No. 31 Wing based at PAF Base Samungli, to the United Arab Emirates to take part in the Air Tactics Leadership Course (ATLC), also known as *Operation Iron Falcon*, at Al Dhafra Air Base. [95][96][97]



PAF F-16s arrive at Red Flag 2010 in Nevada

The PAF's *High Mark 2010* exercise was launched on 15 March 2010, the first time a *High Mark* exercise had been conducted since 2005, after all PAF received their Air Tasking Orders (ATO). The country-wide exercise involved units based all over Pakistan, from Skardu to the Arabian Sea, at all Main Operating Bases and Forward Operating Bases. Joint operations involving the Pakistan Army and Pakistan Navy were also conducted, aiming to test and improve integration and cooperation between the three arms. Operations emphasised a near-realistic simulation of the war-time environment, exposure of PAF aircrews to contemporary concepts of air combat,

new employment concepts and joint operations between air force, army and navy. New inductions such as the JF-17 Thunder fighter, Saab 2000 Erieye AEW&C and II-78 Multi-Role Tanker Transports also took part. On 6 April 2010 the end of the first phase of exercise *High Mark 2010* was celebrated with a firepower demonstration at the PAF's firing range facility in the deserts of Thal. The 90 minute demo involved the new JF-17 Thunder fighter, Saab 2000 Erieye AEW&C and II-78 MRTT aircraft. The H-2 SOW (Stand-Off Weapon) was also shown to the public for the first time, being launched from around 60 km away before hitting its target, and a mock counter-insurgency operation was performed by troops. The demo heralded the beginning of High Mark 2010's second phase where the PAF would practice joint operations with the Pakistan Army during the army's exercise *Azm-e-Nau-3* (New Resolve 3). Operations of the part of



A PAF F-16 is refuelled in-flight by a U.S.A.F. KC-135 tanker during Red Flag 2010.

In July 2010 the PAF sent six F-16B fighters of No. 9 *Griffins* Squadron and 100 PAF personnel to Nellis Air Force Base in the U.S.A. to participate in the international Red Flag exercise for the first time. During the exercise the PAF pilots practised in-flight refuelling of their F-16s with the KC-135 Stratotanker. [102][103][104][105][106]



A PAF Mirage III competes in the Alert Scramble Competition during Falcon Air Meet 2010 in Jordan.



In October 2010 the PAF's No. 7 *Bandits* Squadron sent a team of its Dassault Mirage III ROSE fighters to Jordan to participate in the Falcon Air Meet 2010 exercise at Azraq Royal Jordanian Air Base. [107][108] January 2011 saw a PAF contingent of F-16A/B and Dassault Mirage fighters take part in the Al-Saqoor II exercise in Saudi Arabia with the Royal Saudi Air Force. [109][110][111]

In March 2011 a joint Sino-Pakistani exercise, Shaheen 1, was conducted involving a contingent of Chinese aircraft and personnel from the PLAAF.^[112] Information on which aircraft were used by each side in the exercise was not released, but photos of Pakistani pilots inspecting what appeared to be Chinese Shenyang J-11B fighters were released on the internet. The exercise lasted for around 4 weeks and was the first time the PLAAF had deployed to and conducted "operational" aerial maneuvers in Pakistan with the PAF.^[113]

Organization

The Air Force has about 65,000 active personnel with about 10,000 reserves. The Chief of the Air Staff holds the operational and administrative powers. He is assisted by a Vice Chief of Air Staff and six Deputy Chiefs of the Air Staff who control and administer the Administration, Operations, Engineering, Supply (logistics), Personnel, and Training divisions of the PAF respectively. Recently, the Air Headquarters (AHQ) has been moved from Chaklala to Islamabad. Major Air force bases are at Shorkot, Karachi, Quetta, Kamra, Peshawar, Mianwali, Sargodha and Risalpur. There are many war-time operational forward bases, civilian airstrips and runways as well as emergency motorways.

Commands

- Air Force Strategic Command (AFSC), Islamabad
- Northern Air Command (NAC), Peshawar
- Central Air Command (CAC), Lahore
- Southern Air Command (SAC), Karachi
- Air Defence Command (ADC), Chaklala, Rawalpindi

Bases

These are the bases from which the PAF planes operate during peace time.^[114] They have complete infrastructure of hardened shelters, control towers, workshops, ordnance depots etc. There are ten flying bases and also seven non-flying bases:

Flying bases

- PAF Base Mushaf (Sargodha)
- PAF Base Masroor (Karachi)
- PAF Base Rafiqui (Shorkot)
- PAF Base Peshawar (Peshawar)
- PAF Base Samungli (Quetta)
- PAF Base Mianwali (Mianwali)
- PAF Base Minhas (Kamra)
- PAF Base Chaklala (Rawalpindi)
- PAF Base Faisal (Karachi)
- PAF Base Risalpur (Pakistan Air Force Academy) (Risalpur)
- PAF Base Shahbaz (Jacobabad)

Non-flying bases

- PAF Base Korangi Creek (Karachi)
- PAF Base Malir (Karachi)
- PAF Base Kohat (Kohat)
- PAF Base Lahore (Lahore)
- PAF Base Sakesar (Sakesar)
- PAF Base Lower Topa (Murree)
- PAF Base Kalabagh (Nathia Gali)

Rank structure

Structure of the Commissioned officer rank of the Pakistan Air Force

Pay grade	O-10	O-9	O-8	O-7	O-6	0-5	0-4	0-3	0-2	0-1
Insignia	***	***	*	*	GROUP CAPTAIN		SQUARMON LEADER	* *	© CANADO OFFICIAL	PLOT OFFICER
Title	Air	Air Marshal	Air-vice	Air-Commodore	Group-Captain	Wing-Commander	Squadron	Flight	Flying	Pilot
	Chief		Marshal				Leader	Lieutenant	Officer	Officer
	Marshal									
Abbreviation	ACM	AM	AVM	Air Cdre	Gr Capt	WCdr	S/Ldr	Ft Lt	F/O	P/O
NATO Code	OF-10	OF-9	OF-8	OF-7	OF-6	OF-5	OF-4	OF-3	OF-2	OF-1
Rank	4-star	3-star	2-star	1-star Officer						
Hierarchy	Air	Air-Marshall	Air-Marshal							
	Marshal									

Structure of the Enlisted rank of the Pakistan Air Force

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Naval hostilities

Operation Dwarka

Operation Dwarka, also known as "**Operation Somnath**", ^[1] was a naval operation commenced by the Pakistan Navy to attack the Indian coastal town of Dwarka on 7 September 1965. This was the first use of Pakistan Navy in any of the Indo-Pakistan Wars. It was one of the significant naval events of the 1965 Indo-Pak war, and Pakistan celebrates September 8 as "*Victory Day*" for Pakistan Navy.

As the Indo-Pakistani War of 1965 broke out between India and Pakistan over Kashmir, armies and air forces of both nations were involved in intense fighting in the Punjab region and in Kashmir. To relieve pressure on the southern front, Pakistan decided to use its navy in the war by launching a quick strike on Indian coast. The primary objective of the attack was to destroy the radar station at Dwarka which Pakistani Naval intelligence believed had a Huff/Duff beacon to guide Indian bombers. [2] Pakistani high command also hoped to divert the operations of the Indian Air Force away from the north.

Objectives

The mission objectives of Pakistan Navy are listed below.:

- To draw the heavy enemy units out of Bombay for the submarine PNS Ghazi to attack.
- To destroy the radar installation at Dwarka.
- To lower Indian morale.
- To divert Indian Air Force effort away from the north.

The Naval attack

On the night of September 7 Pakistan Navy launched its assault on Western Indian shores. Dwarka was chosen for its proximity (200 km from Karachi Port), its lower defences and historical relevance. The plan called for a fleet of 7 naval vessels of Pakistan to bomb the tiny town of Dwarka. It was aimed at luring the major ships anchored in Bombay to attack the Pakistan ships. The intention was that the submarine PNS *Ghazi* lurking in the Arabian Sea would then take out the Indian ships. Accordingly a fleet of seven ships comprising PNS *Babur*, PNS *Khaibar*, PNS *Badr*, PNS *Jahangir*, PNS *Alamgir*, PNS *Shah Jahan* and PNS *Tipu Sultan* set sail for Dwarka and bombed the tiny town.

The heavy ships could not be attacked by the submarine PNS *Ghazi* as the ships in Bombay were under refit, and it did not encounter the active combatants on the West coast.^[3] The objective to divert the Indian Air Force attacking Pakistan's Southern front worked as the Indian Airforce raids on the city of Karachi ceased, presumed by Pakistani sources to be due to lack of availability of the radar guidance to the IAF fighter jets, which was damaged in the attack.

Indian Navy's official version states that at around 2355 hours, the Pakistani vessels fired over the main temple of Dwarka for more than 20 minutes. The ships fired around 50 shells each, which included some 5.25 inch rounds fired by the Pak cruiser *PNS Babur*. It adds that most shells fell between the temple and the railway station, which lay 3 km from the lighthouse. Some buildings were hit, with only the Railway Guest House suffering some minor damages and a cement factory of Associated Cement Company was also hit and smoke could be seen 20 km away by Pakistani ships.

Operation Dwarka 129

The radar installation was shelled during the bombardment but neither the radar was damaged nor were any casualties reported by Indian sources. [1] A frigate INS Talwar was in nearby Okha port undergoing repairs and did not intervene. [4] Hiranandani's history of the Indian Navy states that: [4]

Next morning she (INS *Talwar*) was directed to send a team to Dwarka to assess the damage. The team found that most of the shells had fallen on the soft soil between the temple and the radio station and failed to explode. The air attack had damaged a railway engine and blown off a portion of a railway guesthouse.

A total of forty unexploded shells were also recovered intact. Interestingly, the shells bore the mark "INDIAN ORDNANCE"; these were dated from the 1940s - period before the Partition of India and creation of India and Pakistan.

Radio Pakistan, however, transmitted that Dwarka was badly destroyed.

Naval Command

The following is the list of Commanding officers of the Operation Dwarka:

- Commodore S.M. Anwar, OTC Officer Commanding of Operation Dwarka
- Captain MAK Lodhi Officer commanding of PNS Babur, the destroyer.
- Captain A Hanif-Officer Commanding of PNS Khaibar, the destroyer.
- · Commander IH Malik Commanding officer of PNS Badr, the frigate.
- Commander KM Hussain Commanding officer of PNS Jahangir, the cruiser.
- Commander Iqbal F. Quadir Commanding officer of PNS Alamgir, the destoyer.
- Commander SZ Shamsie Commanding officer of PNS Shah Jahan, the destroyer.
- Commander Amir Aslam Commanding officer of PNS Tipu Sultan, the destroyer.
- Commander Karamat Rahman Niazi Commanding officer of PNS Ghazi, the submarine.

Aftermath

The Dwarka raid is considered by Pakistani sources as being a prime reason for the Indian Navy's subsequent post-war modernization and expansion, with an increase in budget from Rs. 35 crores to Rs. 115 crores. The Dwarka raid, as per an Indian historian G. M Hiranandani, led to the procurement of missile boats by the Indian Navy from the Soviet Union for the Defense of Kutch. These were subsequently used by India in Operation Trident in the 1971 war. However, he attributes the expansion of the Indian Navy in the period 1965 to 1975 to the post-1962 planned expansion of the Indian Navy with many ships being negotiated and purchased from the Soviet Union prior to the war. Union prior to the war.

Operation Dwarka 130

Popular culture

In 1998, Inter Services Public Relations (ISPR) financed and produced the dramatization of the operation named, "*Operation Dwarka*, 1965", which was based on this incident. The film was directed by Pakistani film director Qasim Jalali and it was written by Hameed Kashmiri.

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- [2] Mohan, P. V. S. Jagan; Chopra, Samir (May 2005). The India-Pakistan air war of 1965 (http://books.google.com/books?id=FAhuAAAAMAAJ). Manohar. p. 157. ISBN 978-81-7304-641-4. . Retrieved 8 November 2011.
- [3] Hiranandani, "Transition to triumph", pp 34-35. FOCIF sailed with his flagship INS Mysore and three escorts out of Bombay harbour and remained on station without encountering any Pakistani naval vessels till 8th when, the Talwar returning from Okha, joined her.
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 Retrieved 10 November 2011. The authors were the Defence Minister of India and his Private Secretary from 1962-65 (see pg xiii).
- [10] Roy, Mihir K. (1995) pg. 84. "War in the Indian Ocean" (http://books.google.com/books?id=Tqr8r7EB18wC&pg=PA84#v=onepage&q&f=false)
 - 'But the Bombayites failed to understand the lack of success by the Indian fleet, especially with sirens wailing, Jamnagar attacked and Dwarka shelled. But nonetheless, the naval bombardment of Dwarka with the Indian fleet still preparing to sail was an affront to the sailors in white, who could not understand what was holding the fleet back.'
- [11] Qadir, Iqbal, Vice Admiral (retd) (1998). "Pakistan and its three wars" (http://www.defencejournal.com/march98/pak3wars1.htm). www.defencejournal.com. . Retrieved 10 November 2011.
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 Retrieved 08 November 2011.
- [13] Hiranandani, "Transition to triumph", pp 34. Talwar encountering contamination of her boilers due to leakage of her condensors put in to Okha for temporary repairs.
- [14] Roy, Mihir K. (1995) "War in the Indian Ocean" (http://books.google.com/books?id=Tqr8r7EB18wC&pg=PA84#v=onepage&q&f=false), pp 84-85.

'As Vice Admiral N. Krishnan is supposed to have said. "One of our frigates Talwar was at Okha. It is unfortunate that she could not sail forth and seek battle. Even if there was a mandate against the Navy participating in the war, no Government could blame a warship going into action, if attacked. An affront to our national honour is no joke and we cannot laugh it away by saying 'All the Pakistani's did was to kill a cow'. Let us at least create a memorial to the 'unknown cow' who died with her boots on in a battle against the Pakistan Navy."'

Operation Dwarka

External links

 $\bullet \quad Operation\ Dwarka\ (http://www.paknavy.gov.pk/HISTORY/DWARKA/history-dwarks.htm)\\$

• The Shelling of Dwarka (http://www.bharat-rakshak.com/IAF/History/1965War/Dwarka.html)

Indo-Pakistani War of 1971

The **Indo-Pakistani War of 1971** was a military conflict between India and Pakistan. Indian, Bangladeshi and international sources consider the beginning of the war to be Operation Chengiz Khan, Pakistan's 3 December 1971 pre-emptive strike on 11 Indian airbases.^{[1][2]} Lasting just 13 days it is considered one of the shortest wars in history. ^{[3][4]}

During the course of the war, Indian and Pakistani forces clashed on the eastern and western fronts. The war effectively came to an end after the Eastern Command of the Pakistani Armed Forces signed the Instrument of Surrender, on 16 December 1971 following which East Pakistan seceded as the independent state of Bangladesh. Between 90,000 and 93,000 members of the Pakistan Armed Forces including paramilitary personnel were taken as Prisoners of War by the Indian Army [6][7] It is estimated that between 2,000,000 and 3,000,000 civilians were killed in Bangladesh, and up to four hundred thousand women raped by the Pakistani armed forces, especially Hindus. [9][10] As a result of the conflict, a further eight to ten million people fled the country at the time to seek refuge in neighbouring India. [11]

Background

The Indo-Pakistani conflict was sparked by the Bangladesh Liberation war, a conflict between the traditionally dominant West Pakistanis and the majority East Pakistanis. [12] The Bangladesh Liberation war ignited after the 1970 Pakistani election, in which the East Pakistani Awami League won 167 of 169 seats in East Pakistan and secured a simple majority in the 313-seat lower house of the Majlis-e-Shoora (Parliament of Pakistan). Awami League leader Sheikh Mujibur Rahman presented the Six Points to the President of Pakistan and claimed the right to form the government. After the leader of the Pakistan Peoples Party, Zulfikar Ali Bhutto, refused to yield the premiership of Pakistan to Mujibur, President Yahya Khan called the military, dominated by West Pakistanis, to suppress dissent. [13][14]

Mass arrests of dissidents began, and attempts were made to disarm East Pakistani soldiers and police. After several days of strikes and non-cooperation movements, the Pakistani military cracked down on Dhaka on the night of 25 March 1971. The Awami League was banished, and many members fled into exile in India. Mujib was arrested on the night of 25–26 March 1971 at about 1:30 a.m. (as per Radio Pakistan's news on 29 March 1971) and taken to West Pakistan. The next action carried out was Operation Searchlight, an attempt to kill the intellectual elite of the east. [8]

On 27 March 1971, Ziaur Rahman, a major in the Pakistani army, declared the independence of Bangladesh on behalf of Mujibur. [15] In April, exiled Awami League leaders formed a government-in-exile in Baidyanathtala of Meherpur. The East Pakistan Rifles, a paramilitary force, defected to the rebellion. Bangladesh Force namely Mukti Bahini consisting of Niyomito Bahini (Regular Force) and Gono Bahini (Guerilla Force) was formed under the Commander-in-Chief (C-in-C) General Mohammad Ataul Ghani Osmany. [16]

India's involvement in Bangladesh Liberation War

The Pakistan army conducted a widespread genocide against the Bengali population of East Pakistan, [17] aimed in particular at the minority Hindu population, [9][18] leading to approximately 10 million [9][19] people fleeing East Pakistan and taking refuge in the neighbouring Indian states. [17][20] The East Pakistan-India border was opened to allow refugees safe shelter in India. The governments of West Bengal, Bihar, Assam, Meghalaya and Tripura established refugee camps along the border. The resulting flood of impoverished East Pakistani refugees placed an intolerable strain on India's already overburdened economy. [18]

General Tikka Khan earned the nickname 'Butcher of Bengal' due to the widespread atrocities he committed. General Niazi commenting on his actions noted 'On the night between 25/26 March 1971 General Tikka struck. Peaceful night was turned into a time of wailing, crying and burning. General Tikka let loose everything at his disposal as if raiding an enemy, not dealing with his own misguided and misled people. The military action was a display of stark cruelty more merciless than the massacres at Bukhara and Baghdad by Chengiz Khan and Halaku Khan... General Tikka... resorted to the killing of civilians and a scorched earth policy. His orders to his troops were: 'I want the land not the people...' Major General Farman had written in his table diary, "Green land of East Pakistan will be painted red". It was painted red by Bengali blood. [21]

The Indian government repeatedly appealed to the international community, but failing to elicit any response, Prime Minister Indian Gandhi on 27 March 1971 expressed full support of her government for the independence struggle of the people of East Pakistan. The Indian leadership under Prime Minister Gandhi quickly decided that it was more effective to end the genocide by taking armed action against Pakistan than to simply give refuge to those who made it across to refugee camps. [20] Exiled East Pakistan army officers and members of the Indian Intelligence immediately started using these camps for recruitment and training of Mukti Bahini guerrillas. [23]

The mood in West Pakistan had also turned increasingly jingoistic and militaristic against East Pakistan and India. By the end of September, an organised propaganda campaign, possibly orchestrated by elements within the Government of Pakistan, resulted in stickers proclaiming *Crush India* becoming a standard feature on the rear windows of vehicles in Rawalpindi, Islamabad and Lahore and soon spread to the rest of West Pakistan. By October, other stickers proclaimed *Hang the Traitor* in an apparent reference to Sheikh Mujibur Rahman. [24]

India's official engagement with Pakistan

Objective

By November, war seemed inevitable. Throughout November, thousands of people led by West Pakistani politicians marched in Lahore and across West Pakistan, calling for Pakistan to Crush India. [25][26] India responded by starting a massive buildup of Indian forces on the border with East Pakistan. The Indian military waited until December, when the drier ground would make for easier operations and Himalayan passes would be closed by snow, preventing any Chinese intervention. On 23 November, Yahya Khan declared a state of emergency in all of Pakistan and told his people to prepare for war. [27]

On the evening of 3 December Sunday, at about 5:40 p.m., [28] the Pakistani Air Force (PAF) launched a pre-emptive strike on eleven airfields in north-western India, including Agra which was 300 miles (unknown operator: u'strong' km) from the border. During this attack the Taj Mahal was camouflaged with a forest of twigs and leaves and draped with burlap because its marble glowed like a white beacon in the moonlight. [29]

This preemptive strike known as Operation Chengiz

Bangladesh Unit Key Туре Nation = Infantry 53 36 Brigade Illustration showing military units and troop movements during

operations in the Eastern sector of the war.

Khan, was inspired by the success of Israeli Operation Focus in the Arab-Israeli Six Day War. But, unlike the Israeli attack on Arab airbases in 1967 which involved a large number of Israeli planes, Pakistan flew no more than 50 planes to India. [30][31]

In an address to the nation on radio that same evening, Prime Minister Indira Gandhi held that the air strikes were a declaration of war against India [32][33] and the Indian Air Force responded with initial air strikes that very night. These air strikes were expanded to massive retaliatory air strikes the next morning and thereafter which followed interceptions by Pakistanis anticipating this action. [34][35]

This marked the official start of the Indo-Pakistani War of 1971. Prime Minister Indira Gandhi ordered the immediate mobilisation of troops and launched the full-scale invasion. This involved Indian forces in a massive coordinated air, sea, and land assault. Indian Air Force started flying sorties against Pakistan from midnight. [35][12][29] The main Indian objective on the western front was to prevent Pakistan from entering Indian soil. There was no Indian intention of conducting any major offensive into West Pakistan. [28]

Naval hostilities

Naval reconnaissance submarine operations were started by the Pakistan Navy on both eastern and western front. In the western theatre of the war, the Indian Navy, under the command of Vice Admiral S.N. Kohli, successfully attacked Karachi's port in Operation Trident^[12] on the night of 4–5 December,^[12] using missile boats, sinking Pakistani destroyer PNS Khyber and a minesweeper PNS Muhafiz; PNS Shah Jahan was badly damaged.^[12] 720 Pakistani sailors were killed or wounded, and Pakistan lost reserve fuel and many commercial ships, thus crippling the Pakistan Navy's further involvement in the conflict. Operation Trident was followed by Operation Python^[12] on the night of 8–9 December,^[12] in which Indian missile boats



Pakistan's PNS Ghazi sank off the fairway buoy of Visakhapatnam near the eastern coast of India, making it the first submarine casualty in the waters around the Indian subcontinent.

attacked the Karachi port, resulting in further destruction of reserve fuel tanks and the sinking of three Pakistani merchant ships. [12]

In the eastern theatre of the war, the Indian Eastern Naval Command, under Vice Admiral Krishnan, completely isolated East Pakistan by a naval blockade in the Bay of Bengal, trapping the Eastern Pakistani Navy and eight foreign merchant ships in their ports. From 4 December onwards, the aircraft carrier INS Vikrant was deployed, and its Sea Hawk fighter-bombers attacked many coastal towns in East Pakistan^[36] including Chittagong and Cox's Bazaar. Pakistan countered the threat by sending the submarine PNS Ghazi, which sank en route under mysterious circumstances off Vishakapatnam's coast^{[37][38]} reducing Pakistan's control of Bangladeshi coastline.^[39] But on 9 December, the Indian Navy suffered its biggest wartime loss when the Pakistani submarine PNS Hangor sank the frigate INS Khukri in the Arabian Sea resulting in a loss of 18 officers and 176 sailors.^[40]

The damage inflicted on the Pakistani Navy stood at 7 gunboats, 1 minesweeper, 1 submarine, 2 destroyers, 3 patrol crafts belonging to the coast guard, 18 cargo, supply and communication vessels, and large scale damage inflicted on the naval base and docks in the coastal town of Karachi. Three merchant navy ships — Anwar Baksh, Pasni and Madhumathi —^[41] and ten smaller vessels were captured. Around 1900 personnel were lost, while 1413 servicemen were captured by Indian forces in Dhaka. According to one Pakistan scholar, Tariq Ali, the Pakistan Navy lost a third of its force in the war.

Air operations

After the initial preemptive strike, PAF adopted a defensive stance in response to the Indian retaliation. As the war progressed, the Indian Air Force continued to battle the PAF over conflict zones, [45] but the number of sorties flown by the PAF gradually decreased day-by-day. [46] The Indian Air Force flew 4,000 sorties while its counterpart, the PAF offered little in retaliation, partly because of the paucity of non-Bengali technical personnel. [12] This lack of retaliation has also been attributed to the deliberate decision of the PAF High Command to cut its losses as it had already incurred huge losses in the conflict. [47] Though PAF did not intervene during the Indian Navy's raid on Pakistani naval port city of Karachi, it retaliated with bombing the Okha harbour destroying the fuel tanks used by the boats that attacked. [48][49][50]

In the east, the small air contingent of Pakistan Air Force No. 14 Sqn was destroyed, putting the Dhaka airfield out of commission and resulting in Indian air superiority in the east.^[12]

Attacks on Pakistan

While India's grip on what had been East Pakistan tightened, the IAF continued to press home attacks against Pakistan itself. The campaign settled down to series of daylight anti-airfield, anti-radar and close-support attacks by fighters, with night attacks against airfields and strategic targets by B-57s and C-130 (Pakistan), and Canberras and An-12s (India). The PAF's F-6s were employed mainly on defensive combat air patrols over their own bases, but without air superiority the PAF was unable to conduct effective offensive operations, and its attacks were largely ineffective. During the IAF's airfield attacks one US and one UN aircraft were damaged in Dacca, while a Canadian Air Force Caribou was destroyed at Islamabad, along with US military liaison chief Brigadier General Chuck Yeager's USAF Beech U-8 light twin.

Sporadic raids by the IAF continued against Pakistan's forward air bases in the West until the end of the war, and large scale interdiction and close-support operations, and were maintained. The PAF played a more limited part in the operations, and were reinforced by F-104s from Jordan, Mirages from an unidentified Middle Eastern ally (probably Libya) and by F-86s from Saudi Arabia. Their arrival helped camouflage the extent of Pakistan's losses. Libyan F-5s were reportedly deployed to Sargodha, perhaps as a potential training unit to prepare Pakistani pilots for an influx of more F-5s from Saudi Arabia.

Hostilities officially ended at 14:30 GMT on 17 December, after the fall of Dacca on 15 December. India claimed large gains of territory in West Pakistan (although pre-war boundaries were recognised after the war), though the independence of Pakistan's East wing as Bangladesh was confirmed. India flew 1,978 sorties in the East and about 4,000 in the West, while PAF flew about 30 and 2,840. More than 80 percent of the IAF's sorties were close-support and interdiction, and about 65 IAF aircraft were lost (54 losses were admitted), perhaps as many as 27 of them in air combat. Pakistan lost 72 aircraft (51 of them combat types, but admitting only 25 to enemy action). At least 16 of the Pakistani losses, and 24 fell in air combat (although only 10 air combat losses were admitted, not including any F-6s, Mirage IIIs, or the six Jordanian F-104s which failed to return to their donors). But the imbalance in air losses was explained by the IAF's considerably higher sortie rate, and its emphasis on ground-attack missions. On the ground Pakistan suffered most, with 8,000 killed and 25,000 wounded while India lost 3,000 dead and 12,000 wounded. The losses of armoured vehicles were similarly imbalanced. This represented a major defeat for Pakistan. [51]

Ground operations

Pakistan attacked at several places along India's western border with Pakistan, but the Indian army successfully held their positions. The Indian Army quickly responded to the Pakistan Army's movements in the west and made some initial gains, including capturing around 5500 square miles (**unknown operator: u'strong'** km²)^{[52][53]} of Pakistan territory (land gained by India in Pakistani Kashmir, Pakistani Punjab and Sindh sectors was later ceded in the Simla Agreement of 1972, as a gesture of goodwill).

On the eastern front, the Indian Army joined forces with the Mukti Bahini to form the *Mitro Bahini* ("Allied Forces"); Unlike the 1965 war which had emphasised set-piece battles and slow advances, this time the strategy adopted was a swift, three-pronged assault of nine infantry divisions with attached armoured units and close air support that rapidly converged on Dhaka, the capital of East Pakistan.

Lieutenant General Jagjit Singh Aurora, who commanded the eighth, twenty-third, and fifty-seventh divisions, led the Indian thrust into East Pakistan. As these forces attacked Pakistani formations, the Indian Air Force rapidly destroyed the small air contingent in East Pakistan and put the Dhaka airfield out of commission. In the meantime, the Indian Navy effectively blockaded East Pakistan.

The Indian campaign employed "blitzkrieg" techniques, exploiting weakness in the enemy's positions and bypassing opposition, and resulted in a swift victory. [54] Faced with insurmountable losses, the Pakistani military capitulated in less than a fortnight. On 16 December, the Pakistani forces stationed in East Pakistan surrendered.

Surrender of Pakistani forces in East Pakistan

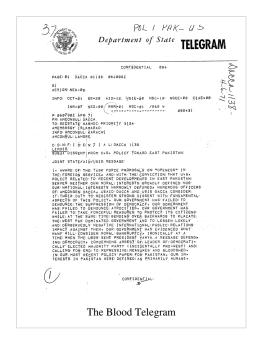
The *Instrument of Surrender* of Pakistani forces stationed in East Pakistan was signed at Ramna Race Course in Dhaka at 16.31 IST on 16 December 1971, by Lieutenant General Jagjit Singh Aurora, General Officer Commanding-in-chief of Eastern Command of the Indian Army and Lieutenant General A. A. K. Niazi, Commander of Pakistani forces in East Pakistan. As Aurora accepted the surrender, the surrounding crowds on the race course began shouting anti-Niazi and anti-Pakistan slogans.^[55]

India took approximately 90,000 prisoners of war, including Pakistani soldiers and their East Pakistani civilian supporters. 79,676 prisoners were uniformed personnel, of which 55,692 were Army, 16,354 Paramilitary, 5,296 Police, 1000 Navy and 800 PAF. [56] The remaining prisoners were civilians – either family members of the military personnel or collaborators (razakars). The Hamoodur Rahman Commission report instituted by Pakistan lists the Pakistani POWs as follows: Apart from soldiers, it was estimated that 15,000 Bengali civilians were also made prisoners of war. [57]

Branch	Number of captured Pakistani POWs				
Army	54,154				
Navy	1,381				
Air Force	833				
Paramilitary including police	22,000				
Civilian personnel	12,000				
Total:	90,368				

Foreign involvement

United States and Soviet Union



The Soviet Union sympathised with the Bangladeshis, and supported the Indian Army and Mukti Bahini during the war, recognising that the independence of Bangladesh would weaken the position of its rivals—the United States and China. The USSR gave assurances to India that if a confrontation with the United States or China developed, it would take counter-measures. This assurance was enshrined in the Indo-Soviet friendship treaty signed in August 1971. [58]

The United States supported Pakistan both politically and materially. President Richard Nixon and his Secretary of State Henry Kissinger feared Soviet expansion into South and Southeast Asia. Pakistan was a close ally of the People's Republic of China, with whom Nixon had been negotiating a *rapprochement* and where he intended to visit in February 1972. Nixon feared that an Indian invasion of West Pakistan would mean total Soviet domination of the region, and that it would seriously undermine the global position of the United States and the regional position of America's new tacit ally, China. In order to

demonstrate to China the *bona fides* of the United States as an ally, Nixon sent military supplies to Pakistan, routing them through Jordan and Iran, ^[60] while also encouraging China to increase its arms supplies to Pakistan. The Nixon

administration also ignored reports it received of the "genocidal" activities of the Pakistani Army in East Pakistan, most notably the Blood telegram. This prompted widespread criticism and condemnation both by Congress and in

the international press. [17][61][62]

Then-US ambassador to the United Nations George H.W. Bush—later 41st President of the United States—introduced a resolution in the UN Security Council calling for a cease-fire and the withdrawal of armed forces by India and Pakistan. It was vetoed by the Soviet Union. The following days witnessed a great pressure on the Soviets from the Nixon-Kissinger duo to get India to withdraw, but to no avail. [63]

It has been documented that President Nixon requested Iran and Jordan to send their F-86, F-104 and F-5 fighter jets in aid of Pakistan. [64]

When Pakistan's defeat in the eastern sector seemed certain, Nixon deployed a carrier battle group led by the aircraft carrier USS *Enterprise* into the Bay of Bengal. The *Enterprise* and its escort ships arrived on station on 11 December 1971. According to a Russian documentary, the United Kingdom deployed a carrier battle group led by the aircraft carrier HMS *Eagle* to the Bay, [58][65] although this is unlikely as the *Eagle* was decommissioned at Portsmouth, England in January 1972.

On 6 and 13 December, the Soviet Navy dispatched two groups of cruisers and destroyers and a submarine armed with nuclear missiles from Vladivostok;^[58] they trailed U.S. Task Force 74 into the Indian Ocean from 18 December 1971 until 7 January 1972. The Soviets also had a nuclear submarine to help ward off the threat posed by USS *Enterprise* task force in the Indian Ocean. [66][67]

China

As a long-standing ally of Pakistan, the People's Republic of China reacted with alarm to the evolving situation in East Pakistan and the prospect of India invading West Pakistan and Pakistani-controlled Kashmir. Believing that just such an Indian attack was imminent, Nixon encouraged China to mobilise its armed forces along its border with India to discourage it. The Chinese did not, however, respond to this encouragement, because unlike the 1962 Sino-Indian War when India was caught entirely unaware, this time the Indian Army was prepared and had deployed eight mountain divisions to the Sino-Indian border to guard against such an eventuality. ^[68] China instead threw its weight behind demands for an immediate ceasefire.

When Bangladesh applied for membership to the United Nations in 1972, China vetoed their application^[69] because two United Nations resolutions regarding the repatriation of Pakistani prisoners of war and civilians had not yet been implemented.^[70] China was also among the last countries to recognise independent Bangladesh, refusing to do so until 31 August 1975.^{[71][69]}

Aftermath

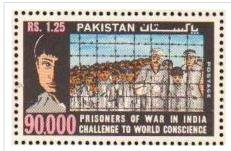
India

The war stripped Pakistan of more than half of its population and with nearly one-third of its army in captivity, clearly established India's military dominance of the subcontinent. ^[19] In spite of the magnitude of the victory, India was surprisingly restrained in its reaction. Mostly, Indian leaders seemed pleased by the relative ease with which they had accomplished their goals—the establishment of Bangladesh and the prospect of an early return to their homeland of the 10 million Bengali refugees who were the cause of the war. ^[19] In announcing the Pakistani surrender, Prime Minister Indira Gandhi declared in the Indian Parliament:

"Dacca is now the free capital of a free country. We hail the people of Bangladesh in their hour of triumph. All nations who value the human spirit will recognize it as a significant milestone in man's quest for liberty."^[19]

Pakistan

For Pakistan it was a complete and humiliating defeat, [19] a psychological setback that came from a defeat at the hands of intense rival India. [6] Pakistan lost half its population and a significant portion of its economy and suffered setbacks to its geo-political role in South Asia. [6][19] Pakistan feared that the two-nation theory was disproved and that the Islamic ideology had proved insufficient to keep Bengalis part of Pakistan. [6] Also, the Pakistani military suffered further humiliation by having their 90,000 prisoners of war (POWs) released by India only after the negotiation and signing of the Simla Agreement on 2 July 1972. In addition to repatriation of prisoners of war also, the agreement established an ongoing structure for the negotiated resolution of future conflicts between India and Pakistan (referring to the remaining western provinces that now composed the totality of Pakistan). In signing the agreement, Pakistan also, by implication,



A Pakistan stamp depicting the 90,000 POWs in Indian camps. This stamp was issued by Pakistan with the political aim of raising global support to help secure their release. The POWs were released by India after the signing and ratification of the Simla Agreement.

recognised the former East Pakistan as the now independent and sovereign state of Bangladesh.

The Pakistani people were not mentally prepared to accept defeat, as the state-controlled media in West Pakistan had been projecting imaginary victories. ^[6] When the surrender in East Pakistan was finally announced, people could not come terms with the magnitude of defeat, spontaneous demonstrations and mass protests erupted on the streets of major cities in West Pakistan. Also, referring to the remaining rump Western Pakistan as simply "Pakistan" added to the effect of the defeat as international acceptance of the secession of the eastern half of the country and its creation as the independent state of Bangladesh developed and was given more credence. ^[6] The cost of the war for Pakistan in monetary and human resources was very high. Demoralized and finding himself unable to control the situation, General Yahya Khan surrendered power to Zulfiqar Ali Bhutto who was sworn-in on 20 December 1971 as President and as the (first civilian) Chief Martial Law Administrator. A new and smaller western-based Pakistan emerged on 16 December 1971. ^[72]

The loss of East Pakistan shattered the prestige of the Pakistani military. ^[6] Pakistan lost half its navy, a quarter of its air force and a third of its army. ^[73] The war also exposed the shortcomings of Pakistan's declared strategic doctrine that the "defence of East Pakistan lay in West Pakistan". ^[74] Hussain Haqqani, in his book *Pakistan: Between Mosque and Military* notes,

"Moreover, the army had failed to fulfill its promises of fighting to the last man. The eastern command had laid down arms after losing only 1,300 men in battle. In West Pakistan 1,200 military deaths had accompanied lackluster military performance." [75]

In his book *The 1971 Indo-Pak War: A Soldier's Narrative* Pakistani Major General Hakeem Arshad Qureshi a veteran of this conflict noted,

"We must accept the fact that, as a people, we had also contributed to the bifurcation of our own country. It was not a Niazi, or a Yahya, even a Mujib, or a Bhutto, or their key assistants, who alone were the cause of our break-up, but a corrupted system and a flawed social order that our own apathy had allowed to remain in place for years. At the most critical moment in our history we failed to check the limitless ambitions of individuals with dubious antecedents and to thwart their selfish and irresponsible behaviour. It was our collective 'conduct' that had provided the enemy an opportunity to dismember us." [76]

Bangladesh

Bangladesh became an independent nation, the world's third most populous Muslim state. Mujibur Rahman was released from a West Pakistani prison, returned to Dhaka on 10 January 1972 and to become first President of Bangladesh and later its Prime Minister.

On the brink of defeat around 14 December, the Pakistani Army, and its local collaborators, systematically killed a large number of Bengali doctors, teachers and intellectuals, [77][78] part of a pogrom against the Hindu minorities who constituted the majority of urban educated intellectuals. [79][80] Young men, especially students, who were seen as possible rebels were also targeted. The extent of casualties in East Pakistan is not known. R.J. Rummel cites estimates ranging from one to three million people killed. [11] Other estimates place the death toll lower, at 300,000. Bangladesh government figures state that Pakistani forces aided by collaborators killed three million people, raped 200,000 women and displaced millions of others. [81] In 2010 Bangladesh government set up a tribunal to prosecute the people involved in alleged war crimes and those who collaborated with Pakistan. [82] According to the Government, the defendants would be charged with Crimes against humanity, genocide, murder, rape and arson. [83]

Hamoodur Rahman Commission

In aftermath of war Pakistan Government constituted the Hamoodur Rahman Commission headed by Justice Hamoodur Rahman in 1971 to investigate the political and military causes for defeat and the Bangladesh atrocities during the war. The commission's report was classified and its publication banned by Bhutto as it put the military in poor light, until some parts of the report surfaced in Indian media in 2000. [84][85]

When it was declassified, it showed many failings from the strategic to the tactical levels. It confirmed the looting, rapes and the killings by the Pakistan Army and their local agents. [86] It lay the blame squarely on Pakistani generals, accusing them of debauchery, smuggling, war crimes and neglect of duty. [87] Though no actions were ever taken on commissions findings, [84] the commission had recommended public trial of Pakistan Army generals on the charges that they had been responsible for the situation in the first place and that they had succumbed without a fight. [88]

Simla Agreement

In 1972 the Simla Agreement was signed between India and Pakistan, the treaty ensured that Pakistan recognised the independence of Bangladesh in exchange for the return of the Pakistani POWs. India treated all the POWs in strict accordance with the Geneva Convention, rule 1925. [29] It released more than 90,000 Pakistani PoWs in five months. [89] Further, as a gesture of goodwill, nearly 200 soldiers who were sought for war crimes by Bengalis were also pardoned by India.

The accord also gave back more than 13,000 km² of land that Indian troops had seized in West Pakistan during the war, though India retained a few strategic areas. But some in India felt that the treaty had been too lenient to Bhutto, who had pleaded for leniency, arguing that the fragile democracy in Pakistan would crumble if the accord was perceived as being overly harsh by Pakistanis and that he would be accused of losing Kashmir in addition to the loss of East Pakistan.

Long term consequences

• Steve Coll, in his book *Ghost Wars*, argues that the Pakistan military's experience with India, including Pervez Musharraf's experience in 1971, influenced the Pakistani government to support jihadist groups in Afghanistan even after the Soviets left, because the jihadists were a tool to use against India, including bogging down the Indian Army in Kashmir. [91][92]

- After the war, Zulfikar Ali Bhutto came to power. Pakistan launched Project-706, a secret nuclear weapon
 development program, to defend itself from India. A vast majority of Pakistani nuclear scientists who were
 working at the International Atomic Energy Agency and European and American nuclear programs immediately
 came to Pakistan and joined Project-706.
- Writing about the war in Foreign Affairs magazine Zulfikar Ali Bhutto stated 'There is no parallel in contemporary history to the cataclysm which engulfed Pakistan in 1971. A tragic civil war, which rent asunder the people of the two parts of Pakistan, was seized by India as an opportunity for armed intervention. The country was dismembered, its economy shattered and the nation's self-confidence totally undermined. [93] This statement of Bhutto has given rise to the myth of betrayal prevalent in modern Pakistan. This view was contradicted by the post-War Hamoodur Rahman Commission, ordered by Bhutto himself, which in its 1974 report indicted generals of the Pakistan Army for creating conditions which led to the eventual loss of East Pakistan and for inept handling of military operations in the East. [84]

Important dates

- 7 March 1971: Sheikh Mujibur Rahman declares that, "The current struggle is a struggle for independence", in a public meeting attended by almost a million people in Dhaka.
- 25 March 1971: Pakistani forces start Operation Searchlight, a systematic plan to eliminate any resistance.
 Thousands of people are killed in student dormitories and police barracks in Dhaka.
- 26 March 1971: Sheikh Mujibur Rahman signed an official declaration of independence and sent it through a
 radio message on the night of 25 March (the morning of 26 March). Later Major Ziaur Rahman and other Awami
 League leaders announced the declaration of independence on behalf of Sheikh Mujib from Kalurghat Radio
 Station, Chittagong. The message is relayed to the world by Indian radio stations.
- 27 March 1971: Bangladesh Force namely Mukti Bahini {consisting Niyomito Bahini (Regular Force) and Gono Bahini (Guerilla Force)} was formed under the Commander-in-Chief (C-in-C) General Mohammad Ataul Ghani Osmany.
- 17 April 1971: Exiled leaders of Awami League form a provisional government.
- 3 December 1971: War between India and Pakistan officially begins when West Pakistan launches a series of preemptive air strikes on Indian airfields.
- 6 December 1971: East Pakistan is recognised as Bangladesh by India.
- 14 December 1971: Systematic elimination of Bengali intellectuals is started by Pakistani Army and local collaborators. [79]
- 16 December 1971: Lieutenant-General A. A. K. Niazi, supreme commander of Pakistani Army in East Pakistan, surrenders to the Allied Forces (Mitro Bahini) represented by Lieutenant General Jagjit Singh Arora of Indian Army at the surrender. India and Bangladesh gain victory.
- 12 January 1972: Sheikh Mujibur Rahman comes to power.

Military awards

Battle honours

After the war, a total of number of 41 battle honours and 4 theatre honours were awarded to units of the Indian Army, the notable amongst which are: [94]

• East Pakistan 1971 (theatre honour)

Chhamb

Longanewala

Sindh 1971 (theatre honour)

Defence of Punch •

Parbat Ali

 Jammu and Kashmir 1971 (theatre honour) Punjab 1971 (theatre honour)

Gadra City

Dera Baba Nanak • Poongli Bridge Shehjra

Basantar River

Shingo River Valley

Harar Kalan

Hilli Sylhet

Bogra

Chachro

Gallantry awards

For bravery, a number of soldiers and officers on both sides were awarded the highest gallantry award of their respective countries. Following is a list of the recipients of the Indian award Param Vir Chakra, Bangladeshi award Bir Sreshtho and the Pakistani award Nishan-E-Haider:

India

Recipients of the Param Vir Chakra: [95][96]

- Lance Naik Albert Ekka (Posthumously)
- Flying Officer Nirmal Jit Singh Sekhon (Posthumously)
- Major Hoshiar Singh
- Second Lieutenant Arun Khetarpal (Posthumously)

Bangladesh

Recipients of the Bir Sreshtho:

- Captain Mohiuddin Jahangir (Posthumously)
- Lance Naik Munshi Abdur Rouf (Posthumously)
- Sepoy Hamidur Rahman (Posthumously)
- Sepoy Mostafa Kamal (Posthumously)
- ERA Mohammad Ruhul Amin (Posthumously)
- Flight Lieutenant Matiur Rahman (Posthumously)
- Lance Naik Nur Mohammad Sheikh (Posthumously)

Pakistan

Recipients of the Nishan-E-Haider:

- Major Muhammad Akram (Posthumously)
- Pilot Officer Rashid Minhas (Posthumously)
- Major Shabbir Sharif (Posthumously)
- Sarwar Muhammad Hussain (Posthumously)
- Lance Naik Muhammad Mahfuz (Posthumously)

Civilian Awards

On 25 July 2011, **Bangladesh Freedom Honour** was posthumously conferred on former Indian prime minister Indira Gandhi. President of Bangladesh Zillur Rahman and the Prime Minister Sheikh Hasina conferred **Bangladesh Liberation War Honour** and **Friends of Liberation War Honour** to 75 individuals, six organisations, Mitra Bahini and the people of India at a special ceremony on 28 March 2012 at the Bangabandhu International Conference Centre. This included eight heads of states viz. former Nepalese President Ram Baran Yadav, the third King of Bhutan Jigme Dorji Wangchuck, former Soviet presidents Leonid IIyich Brezhnev and Nikolai Viktorovich Podgorny, ex-Soviet prime minister Alexei Nikolaevich Kosygin, former Yugoslav president Marshal Josip Broz Tito, ex-UK prime minister Sir Edward Richard George Heath and former Nepalese prime minister Bishweshwar Prasad Koirala. The organisations include the BBC, Akashbani (All India Radio), International Committee of the Red Cross, United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees, Oxfam and Kolkata University Shahayak Samiti. The list of foreign friends of Bangladesh include 257 Indians, 88 Americans, 41 Pakistanis, 39 Britons, nine Russians, 18 Nepalese, 16 French and 18 Japanese. [97][98]

Dramatization

Films (Indian)

- *Border*, a 1997 Bollywood war film directed by J.P.Dutta. This movie is an adaptation from real life events that happened at the Battle of Longewala fought in Rajasthan (Western Theatre) during the 1971 Indo-Pak war. *Border* ^[99] at the Internet Movie Database
- Hindustan Ki Kasam, a 1973 Bollywood war film directed by Chetan Anand. The aircraft in the film are all
 authentic aircraft used in the 1971 war against Pakistan. These include MiG-21s, Gnats, Hunters and Su-7s. Some
 of these aircraft were also flown by war veterans such as Samar Bikram Shah (2 kills) and Manbir Singh.
 Hindustan Ki Kasam [100] at the Internet Movie Database
- Aakraman, 1975 Bollywood film set during this war featuring a romantic Love triangle.
- 1971 Prisoners of War, a 2007 Bollywood war film directed by Sagar Brothers. Set against the backdrop of a
 prisoners' camp in Pakistan, follows six Indian prisoners awaiting release after their capture in the 1971
 India-Pakistan war.

Miniseries/Dramas (Pakistani)

• PNS Ghazi (Shaheed), an Urdu drama based on sinking of PNS Ghazi, ISPR

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- A complete coverage of the war from the Indian perspective (http://www.freeindia.org/1971war/)
- An Atlas of the 1971 India Pakistan War: The Creation of Bangladesh by John H. Gill (http://www.ndu.edu/nesa/docs/Gill atlas final version.pdf)
- Actual conversation from the then US President Nixon and Henry Kissinger during the 1971 War (http://www.state.gov/r/pa/ho/frus/nixon/xi/) US Department of State's Official archive.
- Indian Army: Major Operations (http://indianarmy.nic.in/armajop.htm)
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- Indian Air Force Combat Kills in the 1971 war (unofficial), Centre for Indian Military History (http://www.orbat.com/site/cimh/iaf/IAF_1971_kills_rev1.pdf)

• Op Cactus Lilly: 19 Infantry Division in 1971, a personal recall by Lt Col Balwant Singh Sahore (http://frontierindia.net/op-cactus-lilly-19-infantry-division-in-1971/)

- All for a bottle of Scotch, a personal recall of Major (later Major General) C K Karumbaya, SM, the battle for Magura (http://frontierindia.net/all-for-a-bottle-of-scotch/)
- TIME Magazine article from 20 December 1971 describing the War (http://www.time.com/time/printout/0,8816,878969,00.html)
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Background

Bangladesh Liberation War

The **Bangladesh Liberation War**⁽ⁱ⁾ (Bengali: মুক্তযুদ্ধ *Muktijuddho*) was an armed conflict over a duration of about 9 months, putting East Pakistan and India against the State of Pakistan. The war started on 26 March 1971 between the State of Pakistan and East Pakistan, India intervened on 3 December 1971. Armed conflict ended on 16 December 1971 and resulted in the secession of East Pakistan, which became the independent nation of Bangladesh.

The war broke out when army units directed by the State of Pakistan (then controlled by West Pakistan) launched a military operation called Operation Searchlight in East Pakistan against Bengali civilians, students, intelligentsia, and armed personnel who were demanding for the military regime to honor the results of the first ever 1970 democratic elections in Pakistan won by an East Pakistan party or to allow separation of the East from West Pakistan. Bengali military, paramilitary, and civilians formed the Mukti Bahini (Bengali: মুক্তা বাহনি "Liberation Army") on March 26, 1971, in response to Operation Searchlight and used guerrilla warfare tactics to fight against the West Pakistan army. India provided economic, military and diplomatic support to the Mukti Bahini rebels, leading West Pakistan to launch Operation Chengiz Khan, a pre-emptive attack on the western border of India which started the Indo-Pakistani War of 1971.

On 16 December 1971, the allied forces of the Indian army and the Mukti Bahini defeated the West Pakistani forces deployed in the East. The resulting surrender was the largest in number of prisoners of war since World War II.

Background

In August 1947, the Partition of British India gave rise to two new states;^[1] the Dominion of India and the Dominion of Pakistan, the latter intended to be a homeland for the Muslims of the Indian sub-continent. The Dominion of Pakistan comprised two geographically and culturally separate areas to the east and the west of India.^[2] The western zone was popularly (and for a period of time, also officially) termed West Pakistan and the eastern zone (modern-day Bangladesh) was initially termed East Bengal and later, East Pakistan. Although the population of the two zones was close to equal, political power was concentrated in West Pakistan and it was widely perceived that East Pakistan was being exploited economically, leading to many grievances. Administration of two discontinuous territories was also seen as a challenge.^[3]

On 25 March 1971, rising political discontent and cultural nationalism in East Pakistan was met by brutal^[4] suppressive force from the ruling elite of the West Pakistan establishment, ^[5] in what came to be termed Operation Searchlight.^[6]

The violent crackdown by West Pakistan forces^[7] led to Awami League leader Sheikh Mujibur Rahman declaring East Pakistan's independence as the state of Bangladesh on 26 March 1971.^[8] Pakistani President Agha Mohammed Yahya ordered the Pakistani military to restore the Pakistani government's authority, beginning the civil war.^[8] The war led to a sea of refugees (estimated at the time to be about 10 million)^{[9][10]} flooding into the eastern provinces of India.^[9] Facing a mounting humanitarian and economic crisis, India started actively aiding and organising the Bangladeshi resistance army known as the Mukti Bahini.

Language controversy

In 1948, Mohammad Ali Jinnah, Pakistan's first Governor-General, declared in Dhaka (then usually spelled Dacca in English) that "Urdu, and only Urdu" would be the common language for all of Pakistan. [11] This proved highly controversial, since Urdu was a language that was only spoken in the West by Muhajirs and in the East by Biharis, although the Urdu language had been promoted as the *lingua franca* of Indian Muslims by political and religious leaders such as Sir Khwaja Salimullah, Sir Syed Ahmed Khan, Nawab Viqar-ul-Mulk and Maulvi Abdul Haq. The language was considered a vital element of the Islamic culture for Indian Muslims; Hindi and the Devanagari script were seen as fundamentals of Hindu culture. The majority groups in the western provinces of the Dominion of Pakistan (merged in 1956 as West Pakistan) spoke Punjabi, while the Bengali language was spoken by the vast majority of East Bengalis (from 1956, East Pakistan). [12] The language controversy eventually reached a point where East Bengal revolted while the other part of Pakistan remained calm even though Punjabi was spoken by the majority of the population of the western provinces. Several students and civilians lost their lives in a police crackdown on 21 February 1952. [12] The day is revered in Bangladesh and in West Bengal as the Language Martyrs' Day. Later, in memory of the 1952 deaths, UNESCO declared 21 February as the International Mother Language Day in 1999. [13]

In the western provinces, the movement was seen as a sectional uprising against Pakistani national interests^[14] and the founding ideology of Pakistan, the Two-Nation Theory. West Pakistani politicians considered Urdu a product of Indian Islamic culture, as Ayub Khan said, as late as 1967, "East Pakistanis... still are under considerable Hindu culture and influence." However, the deaths led to bitter feelings among East Bengalis, and they were a major factor in the push for independence in 1971. [15][16]

Disparities

Although East Pakistan had a larger population, West Pakistan dominated the divided country politically and received more money from the common budget.

Year	Spending on West Pakistan (in millions of Pakistani rupees)	Spending on East Pakistan (in millions of Pakistani rupees)	Amount spent on East as percentage of West
1950–55	11,290	5,240	46.4
1955–60	16,550	5,240	31.7
1960–65	33,550	14,040	41.8
1965–70	51,950	21,410	41.2
Total	113,340	45,930	40.5
Source: Reports of the Advisory Panels for the Fourth Five Year Plan 1970–75, Vol. I, published by the planning commission of Pakistan.			

Bengalis were underrepresented in the Pakistan military. Officers of Bengali origin in the different wings of the armed forces made up just 5% of overall force by 1965; of these, only a few were in command positions, with the majority in technical or administrative posts. West Pakistanis believed that Bengalis were not "martially inclined" unlike Pashtuns and Punjabis; the "martial races" notion was dismissed as ridiculous and humiliating by Bengalis. Moreover, despite huge defence spending, East Pakistan received none of the benefits, such as contracts, purchasing and military support jobs. The Indo-Pakistani War of 1965 over Kashmir also highlighted the sense of military insecurity among Bengalis, as only an under-strength infantry division and 15 combat aircraft without tank support were in East Pakistan to thwart any Indian retaliations during the conflict. [18][19]

Political differences

Although East Pakistan accounted for a slight majority of the country's population, [20] political power remained in the hands of West Pakistanis. Since a straightforward system of representation based on population would have concentrated political power in East Pakistan, the West Pakistani establishment came up with the "One Unit" scheme, where all of West Pakistan was considered one province. This was solely to counterbalance the East wing's votes.

After the assassination of Liaquat Ali Khan, Pakistan's first prime minister, in 1951, political power began to devolve to the President of Pakistan, and eventually, the military. The nominal elected chief executive, the Prime Minister, was frequently sacked by the establishment, acting through the President.

The East Pakistanis observed that the West Pakistani establishment would swiftly depose any East Pakistanis elected Prime Minister of Pakistan, such as Khawaja Nazimuddin, Muhammad Ali Bogra, or Huseyn Shaheed Suhrawardy. Their suspicions were further influenced by the military dictatorships of Ayub Khan (27 October 1958 – 25 March 1969) and Yahya Khan (25 March 1969 – 20 December 1971), both West Pakistanis. The situation reached a climax in 1970, when the Awami League, the largest East Pakistani political party, led by Sheikh Mujibur Rahman, won a landslide victory in the national elections. The party won 167 of the 169 seats allotted to East Pakistan, and thus a majority of the 313 seats in the National Assembly. This gave the Awami League the constitutional right to form a government. However, Zulfikar Ali Bhutto (a Sindhi and former professor), the leader of the Pakistan Peoples Party, refused to allow Rahman to become the Prime Minister of Pakistan. [21] Instead, he proposed the idea of having two Prime Ministers, one for each wing. The proposal elicited outrage in the east wing, already chafing under the other constitutional innovation, the "one unit scheme". Bhutto also refused to accept Rahman's Six Points. On 3 March 1971, the two leaders of the two wings along with the President General Yahya Khan met in Dhaka to decide the fate of the country. After their discussions yielded no satisfactory results, Sheikh Mujibur Rahman called for a nationwide strike. Bhutto feared a civil war, therefore, he sent his trusted companion, Dr. Mubashir Hassan. [21] A message was convened and Mujib decided to meet Bhutto. [21] Upon his arrival, Mujib met with Bhutto and both agreed to form a coalition government with Mujib as Premier and Bhutto as President. [21] However, the military was unaware of these developments, and Bhutto increased his pressure on Mujib to reached a decision. [21]

On 7 March 1971, Sheikh Mujibur Rahman (soon to be the prime minister) delivered a speech at the Racecourse Ground (now called the Suhrawardy Udyan). In this speech he mentioned a further four-point condition to consider at the National Assembly Meeting on 25 March:

- The immediate lifting of martial law.
- Immediate withdrawal of all military personnel to their barracks.
- An inquiry into the loss of life.
- Immediate transfer of power to the elected representative of the people before the assembly meeting 25 March.

He urged his people to turn every house into a fort of resistance. He closed his speech saying, "Our struggle is for our freedom. Our struggle is for our independence." This speech is considered the main event that inspired the nation to fight for its independence. General Tikka Khan was flown in to Dhaka to become Governor of East Bengal. East-Pakistani judges, including Justice Siddique, refused to swear him in.

Between 10 and 13 March, Pakistan International Airlines cancelled all their international routes to urgently fly "government passengers" to Dhaka. These "government passengers" were almost all Pakistani soldiers in civilian dress. MV *Swat*, a ship of the Pakistan Navy carrying ammunition and soldiers, was harboured in Chittagong Port, but the Bengali workers and sailors at the port refused to unload the ship. A unit of East Pakistan Rifles refused to obey commands to fire on the Bengali demonstrators, beginning a mutiny among the Bengali soldiers.

Response to the 1970 cyclone

The 1970 Bhola cyclone made landfall on the East Pakistan coastline during the evening of 12 November, around the same time as a local high tide, [22] killing an estimated 300,000 to 500,000 people. Though the exact death toll is not known, it is considered the deadliest tropical cyclone on record. [23] A week after the landfall, President Khan conceded that his government had made "slips" and "mistakes" in its handling of the relief efforts due to a lack of understanding of the magnitude of the disaster. [24]

A statement released by eleven political leaders in East Pakistan ten days after the cyclone hit charged the government with "gross neglect, callous and utter indifference". They also accused the president of playing down the magnitude of the problem in news coverage. On 19 November, students held a march in Dhaka protesting the slowness of the government's response. Maulana Abdul Hamid Khan Bhashani addressed a rally of 50,000 people on 24 November, where he accused the president of inefficiency and demanded his resignation.

As the conflict between East and West Pakistan developed in March, the Dhaka offices of the two government organisations directly involved in relief efforts were closed for at least two weeks, first by a general strike and then by a ban on government work in East Pakistan by the Awami League. With this increase in tension, foreign personnel were evacuated over fears of violence. Relief work continued in the field, but long-term planning was curtailed. This conflict widened into the Bangladesh Liberation War in December and concluded with the creation of Bangladesh. This is one of the first times that a natural event helped to trigger a civil war. [28]

Operation Searchlight

A planned military pacification carried out by the Pakistan Army – codenamed *Operation Searchlight* – started on 25 March to curb the Bengali nationalist movement^[29] by taking control of the major cities on 26 March, and then eliminating all opposition, political or military,^[30] within one month. Before the beginning of the operation, all foreign journalists were systematically deported from East Pakistan.^[31]

The main phase of Operation Searchlight ended with the fall of the last major town in Bengali hands in mid-May. The operation also began the 1971 Bangladesh atrocities. These systematic killings served only to enrage the Bengalis, which ultimately resulted in the secession of East Pakistan later in the same year. The international media and reference books in English have published casualty figures which vary greatly, from 5,000–35,000 in Dhaka, and 200,000–3,000,000 for Bangladesh as a whole, [32] and the atrocities have been referred to as acts of genocide. [33][34]

According to the Asia Times, [35]

At a meeting of the military top brass, Yahya Khan declared: "Kill 3 million of them and the rest will eat out of our hands." Accordingly, on the night of 25 March, the Pakistani Army launched *Operation Searchlight* to "crush" Bengali resistance in which Bengali members of military services were disarmed and killed, students and the intelligentsia systematically liquidated and able-bodied Bengali males just picked up and gunned down.

Although the violence focused on the provincial capital, Dhaka, it also affected all parts of East Pakistan. Residential halls of the University of Dhaka were particularly targeted. The only Hindu residential hall – the Jagannath Hall – was destroyed by the Pakistani armed forces, and an estimated 600 to 700 of its residents were murdered. The Pakistani army denied any cold blooded killings at the university, though the Hamood-ur-Rehman commission in Pakistan concluded that overwhelming force was used at the university. This fact and the massacre at Jagannath Hall and nearby student dormitories of Dhaka University are corroborated by a videotape secretly filmed by Prof. Nurul Ullah of the East Pakistan Engineering University, whose residence was directly opposite the student dormitories. [36]

The scale of the atrocities was first made clear in the West when Anthony Mascarenhas, a Pakistani journalist who had been sent to the province by the military authorities to write a story favourable to Pakistan's actions, instead fled to the United Kingdom and, on 13 June 1971, published an article in the *Sunday Times* describing the systematic

killings by the military. The BBC wrote: "There is little doubt that Mascarenhas' reportage played its part in ending the war. It helped turn world opinion against Pakistan and encouraged India to play a decisive role", with Indian Prime Minister Indira Gandhi herself stating that Mascarenhas' article has led her "to prepare the ground for India's armed intervention". [37]

Hindu areas suffered particularly heavy blows. By midnight, Dhaka was burning, especially the Hindu dominated eastern part of the city. *Time* magazine reported on 2 August 1971, "The Hindus, who account for three-fourths of the refugees and a majority of the dead, have borne the brunt of the Pakistani military hatred."

Sheikh Mujibur Rahman was arrested by the Pakistani Army. Yahya Khan appointed Brigadier (later General) Rahimuddin Khan to preside over a special tribunal prosecuting Mujib with multiple charges. The tribunal's sentence was never made public, but Yahya caused the verdict to be held in abeyance in any case. Other Awami League leaders were arrested as well, while a few fled Dhaka to avoid arrest. The Awami League was banned by General Yahya Khan. [38]

Declaration of independence

The violence unleashed by the Pakistani forces on 25 March 1971, proved the last straw to the efforts to negotiate a settlement. Following these outrages, Sheikh Mujibur Rahman signed an official declaration that read:

Today Bangladesh is a sovereign and independent country. On Thursday night, West Pakistani armed forces suddenly attacked the police barracks at Razarbagh and the EPR headquarters at Pilkhana in Dhaka. Many innocent and unarmed have been killed in Dhaka city and other places of Bangladesh. Violent clashes between E.P.R. and Police on the one hand and the armed forces of Pakistan on the other, are going on. The Bengalis are fighting the enemy with great courage for an independent Bangladesh. May Allah aid us in our fight for freedom. Joy Bangla. [39][40]

Sheikh Mujib also called upon the people to resist the occupation forces through a radio message. [41] Mujib was arrested on the night of 25–26 March 1971 at about 1:30 am (as per Radio Pakistan's news on 29 March 1971).

A telegram containing the text of Sheikh Mujibur Rahman's declaration reached some students in Chittagong. The message was translated to Bengali by Dr. Manjula Anwar. The students failed to secure permission from higher authorities to broadcast the message from the nearby Agrabad Station of Radio Pakistan. They crossed Kalurghat Bridge into an area controlled by an East Bengal Regiment under Major Ziaur Rahman. Bengali soldiers guarded the station as engineers prepared for transmission. At 19:45 hrs on 27 March 1971, Major Ziaur Rahman broadcast the announcement of the declaration of independence on behalf of Sheikh Mujibur. On 28 March Major Ziaur Rahman made another announcement, which was as follows:

This is Shadhin Bangla Betar Kendro. I, Major Ziaur Rahman, at the direction of Bangobondhu Sheikh Mujibur Rahman, hereby declare that the independent People's Republic of Bangladesh has been established. At his direction, I have taken command as the temporary Head of the Republic. In the name of Sheikh Mujibur Rahman, I call upon all Bengalis to rise against the attack by the West Pakistani Army. We shall fight to the last to free our Motherland. By the grace of Allah, victory is ours. Joy Bangla. [42]

The Kalurghat Radio Station's transmission capability was limited. The message was picked up by a Japanese ship in Bay of Bengal. It was then re-transmitted by Radio Australia and later by the British Broadcasting Corporation.

M A Hannan, an Awami League leader from Chittagong, is said to have made the first announcement of the declaration of independence over the radio on 26 March 1971. There is controversy now as to when Major Zia gave his speech. BNP sources maintain that it was 26 March, and there was no message regarding declaration of independence from Mujibur Rahman. Pakistani sources, like Siddiq Salik in *Witness to Surrender* had written that he heard about Mujibor Rahman's message on the Radio while Operation Searchlight was going on, and Maj. Gen. Hakeem A. Qureshi in his book *The 1971 Indo-Pak War: A Soldier's Narrative*, gives the date of Zia's speech as 27

March 1971. [44]

26 March 1971 is considered the official Independence Day of Bangladesh, and the name Bangladesh was in effect henceforth. In July 1971, Indian Prime Minister Indira Gandhi openly referred to the former East Pakistan as Bangladesh. [45] Some Pakistani and Indian officials continued to use the name "East Pakistan" until 16 December 1971.

Liberation war

March to June

At first resistance was spontaneous and disorganised, and was not expected to be prolonged. However, when the Pakistani Army cracked down upon the population, resistance grew. The Mukti Bahini became increasingly active. The Pakistani military sought to quell them, but increasing numbers of Bengali soldiers defected to the underground "Bangladesh army". These Bengali units slowly merged into the Mukti Bahini and bolstered their weaponry with supplies from India. Pakistan responded by airlifting in two infantry divisions and reorganising their forces. They also raised paramilitary forces of Razakars, Al-Badrs and Al-Shams (who were mostly members of the Muslim League, then the government party, and other Islamist groups), as well as other Bengalis who opposed independence, and Bihari Muslims who had settled during the time of partition.



Leaflets and pamphlets played an important role in driving public opinion during the war.

On 17 April 1971, a provisional government was formed in Meherpur district in western Bangladesh bordering India with Sheikh Mujibur Rahman, who was in prison in Pakistan, as President, Syed Nazrul Islam as Acting President, Tajuddin Ahmed as Prime Minister, and General Muhammad Ataul Ghani Osmani as Commander-in-Chief, Bangladesh Forces. As fighting grew between the occupation army and the Bengali Mukti Bahini, an estimated 10 million Bengalis, sought refuge in the Indian states of Assam and West Bengal.^[47]

June - September

Bangladesh forces command was set up on 11 July, with Col. M. A. G. Osmani as commander-in-chief (C-in-C) with the status of Cabinet Minister, Lt. Col., Abdur Rabb as chief of Staff (COS), Group Captain A K Khandker as Deputy Chief of Staff (DCOS) and Major A R Chowdhury as Assistant Chief of Staff (ACOS).

General Osmani had differences of opinion with the Indian leadership regarding the role of the Mukti Bahini in the conflict. Indian leadership initially envisioned Bengali forces to be trained into a small elite guerrilla force of 8,000 members, led by the surviving East Bengal Regiment soldiers operating in small cells around Bangladesh to facilitate the eventual Indian intervention, [48] but the Bangladesh Government in exile and General Osmani favored the following strategy: [49][50]

- Bengali conventional force would occupy lodgment areas inside
 Bangladesh and then Bangladesh government would request
 international diplomatic recognition and intervention. Initially
 Mymensingh was picked for this operation, but Gen. Osmani later
 settled on Sylhet.
- Sectors of Liberation War

 international Boundary
 Sector Boundary
 Sector Number

 5 50 100 km

 BAY OF BENGAL

 The eleven sectors
- Sending the maximum number to guerrillas inside Bangladesh as soon as possible with the following objectives: [51][52]
 - Increasing Pakistani casualties through raids and ambush.
 - Cripple economic activity by hitting power stations, railway lines, storage depots and communication networks.
 - Destroy Pakistan army mobility by blowing up bridges/culverts, fuel depots, trains and river crafts.
 - The strategic objective was to make the Pakistanis spread their forces inside the province, so attacks could be made on isolated Pakistani detachments.

Bangladesh was divided into eleven sectors in July,^[53] each with a commander chosen from defected officers of the Pakistani army who joined the Mukti Bahini to conduct guerrilla operations and train fighters. Most of their training camps were situated near the border area and were operated with assistance from India. The 10th Sector was directly placed under the Commander in Chief (C-in-C) General M. A. G. Osmani and included the Naval Commandos and C-in-C's special force.^[54] Three brigades (11 Battalions) were raised for conventional warfare; a large guerrilla force (estimated at 100,000) was trained.^[55]

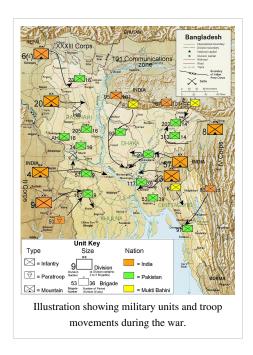
Three brigades (8 infantry battalions and 3 artillery batteries) were put into action between July - September. During June – July, Mukti Bahini had regrouped across the border with Indian aid through Operation Jackpot and began sending 2000 – 5000 guerrillas across the border, the so called Moonsoon Offensive, which for various reasons (lack of proper training, supply shortage, lack of a proper support network inside Bangladesh etc.) failed to achieve its objectives. Bengali regular forces also attacked BOPs in Mymensingh, Comilla and Sylhet, but the results were mixed. Pakistani authorities concluded that they had successfully contained the Monsoon Offensive, which proved a near-accurate observation. [61][62]

Guerrilla operations, which slackened during the training phase, picked up after August. Economic and military targets in Dhaka were attacked. The major success story was Operation Jackpot, in which naval commandos mined and blew up berthed ships in Chittagong on 16 August 1971. Pakistani reprisals claimed lives of thousands of civilians. The Indian army took over supplying the Mukti Bahini from the BSF. They organised six sectors for supplying the Bangladesh forces.

October - December

Bangladesh conventional forces attacked border outposts. Kamalpur, Belonia and the Battle of Boyra are a few examples. 90 out of 370 BOPs fell to Bengali forces. Guerrilla attacks intensified, as did Pakistani and Razakar reprisals on civilian populations. Pakistani forces were reinforced by eight battalions from West Pakistan. The Bangladeshi independence fighters even managed to temporarily capture airstrips at Lalmonirhat and Shalutikar. Both of these were used for flying in supplies and arms from India. Pakistan sent another 5 battalions from West Pakistan as reinforcements.

Indian involvement



Major battles

- Battle of Boyra
- Battle of Garibpur
- Battle of Dhalai
- Battle of Hilli
- Battle of Kushtia

Wary of the growing involvement of India, the Pakistan Air Force (PAF) launched a pre-emptive strike on Indian Air Force bases on 3 December 1971. The attack was modelled on the Israeli Air Force's Operation Focus during the Six-Day War, and intended to neutralize the Indian Air Force planes on the ground. The strike was seen by India as an open act of unprovoked aggression. This marked the official start of the Indo-Pakistani War.

As a response to the attack, both India and Pakistan formally acknowledged the "existence of a state of war between the two countries", even though neither government had formally issued a Declaration of War. [64]

Three Indian corps were involved in the invasion of East Pakistan. They were supported by nearly three brigades of Mukti Bahini fighting alongside them, and many more fighting irregularly. This was far superior to the Pakistani army of three divisions. [65] The Indians quickly overran the country, selectively engaging or bypassing heavily defended strongholds. Pakistani forces were unable to effectively counter the Indian attack, as they had been deployed in small units around the border to counter guerrilla attacks by the Mukti Bahini. [66] Unable to defend Dhaka, the Pakistanis surrendered on 16 December 1971.

The speed of the Indian strategy can be gauged by the fact that one of the regiments of the Indian army (7 Punjab, now 8 Mechanised Inf Regiment) fought the liberation war along the Jessore and Khulna axis. They were newly

converted to a mechanised regiment, and it took them just one week to reach Khulna after capturing Jessore. Their losses were limited to just 2 newly acquired APCs (SKOT) from the Russians.

India's external intelligence agency, the RAW, played a crucial role in providing logistic support to the Mukti Bahini during the initial stages of the war. RAW's operation, in then East Pakistan, was the largest covert operation in the history of South Asia.

Pakistani response

Pakistan launched a number of armoured thrusts along India's western front in attempts to force Indian troops away from East Pakistan. Pakistan tried to fight back and boost the sagging morale by incorporating the Special Services Group commandos in sabotage and rescue missions.

The air and naval war

The Indian Air Force carried out several sorties against Pakistan, and within a week, IAF aircraft dominated the skies of East Pakistan. It achieved near-total air supremacy by the end of the first week as the entire Pakistani air contingent in the east, PAF No.14 Squadron, was grounded because of Indian airstrikes at Tejgaon, Kurmitolla, Lal Munir Hat and Shamsher Nagar. Sea Hawks from INS Vikrant also struck Chittagong, Barisal and Cox's Bazar, destroying the eastern wing of the Pakistan Navy and effectively blockading the East Pakistan ports, thereby cutting off any escape routes for the stranded Pakistani soldiers. The nascent Bangladesh Navy (comprising officers and sailors who defected from the Pakistani Navy) aided the Indians in the marine warfare, carrying out attacks, most notably Operation Jackpot.

Surrender and aftermath

On 16 December 1971, Lt. Gen A. A. K. Niazi, CO of Pakistan Army forces located in East Pakistan signed the Instrument of Surrender. At the time of surrender only a few countries had provided diplomatic recognition to the new nation. Over 93,000 Pakistani troops surrendered to the Indian forces, making it the largest surrender since World War II. [1][67] Bangladesh sought admission in the UN with most voting in its favour, but China vetoed this as Pakistan was its key ally. [68] The United States, also a key ally of Pakistan, was one of the last nations to accord Bangladesh recognition. [69] To ensure a smooth transition, in 1972 the Simla Agreement was signed between India and Pakistan. The treaty ensured that Pakistan recognised the independence of Bangladesh in exchange for the return of the Pakistani PoWs. India treated all the PoWs in strict accordance with the Geneva Convention, rule 1925. [70] It released more than 93,000 Pakistani PoWs in five months. [1]

Further, as a gesture of goodwill, nearly 200 soldiers who were sought for war crimes by Bengalis were also pardoned by India. The accord also gave back more than 13000 km² (unknown operator: u'strong' sq mi) of land that Indian troops had seized in West Pakistan during the war, though India retained a few strategic areas; ^[71] most notably Kargil (which would in turn again be the focal point for a war between the two nations in 1999). This was done as a measure of promoting "lasting peace" and was acknowledged by many observers as a sign of maturity by India. However, some in India felt that the treaty had been too lenient to Bhutto, who had pleaded for leniency, arguing that the fragile democracy in Pakistan would crumble if the accord was perceived as being overly harsh by Pakistanis.

Reaction in West Pakistan to the war

Reaction to the defeat and dismemberment of half the nation was a shocking loss to top military and civilians alike. No one had expected that they would lose the formal war in under a fortnight, and there was also unsettlement over what was perceived as a meek surrender of the army in East Pakistan. Yahya Khan's dictatorship collapsed and gave way to Bhutto, who took the opportunity to rise to power. General Niazi, who surrendered along with 93,000 troops, was viewed with suspicion and contempt upon his return to Pakistan. He was shunned and branded a traitor. The war also exposed the shortcomings of Pakistan's declared strategic doctrine that the "defence of East Pakistan lay in West Pakistan". [72] Pakistan also failed to gather international support, and found itself fighting a lone battle with only the USA providing any external help. This further embittered the Pakistanis, who had faced the worst military defeat of an army in decades.

The debacle immediately prompted an enquiry headed by Justice Hamoodur Rahman. Called the Hamoodur Rahman Commission, it was initially suppressed by Bhutto as it put the military in a poor light. When it was declassified, it showed many failings from the strategic to the tactical levels. It also condemned the atrocities and the war crimes committed by the armed forces. It confirmed the looting, rapes and the killings by the Pakistan Army and their local agents although the figures are far lower than the ones quoted by Bangladesh. According to Bangladeshi sources, 200,000 women were raped and over 3 million people were killed, while the Rahman Commission report in Pakistan claimed 26,000 died and the rapes were in the hundreds. However, the army's role in splintering Pakistan after its greatest military debacle was largely ignored by successive Pakistani governments.

Atrocities

During the war there were widespread killings and other atrocities – including the displacement of civilians in Bangladesh (East Pakistan at the time) and widespread violations of human rights – carried out by the Pakistan Army with support from political and religious militias, beginning with the start of Operation Searchlight on 25 March 1971. Bangladeshi authorities claimed that three million people were killed, while the Hamoodur Rahman Commission, an official Pakistan Government investigation, put the figure at 26,000 civilian casualties. The international media and reference books in English by authors and genocide scholars such as Samuel Totten have also published figures of up to 3,000,000 for Bangladesh as a whole, although independent researchers put the toll at 300,000 to 500,000. The further eight to ten million people fled the country to seek safety in India.

A large section of the intellectual community of Bangladesh were murdered, mostly by the Al-Shams and Al-Badr forces, [77] at the instruction of the Pakistani Army. [78] Just two days before the surrender, on 14 December 1971, Pakistan Army and Razakar militia (local collaborators) picked up at least 100 physicians, professors, writers and engineers in Dhaka, and murdered them, leaving the dead bodies in a mass grave. [79] There are many mass graves in Bangladesh, with an increasing number discovered throughout the proceeding years (such as one in an old well near a mosque in Dhaka, located in the non-Bengali region of the city, which was discovered in August 1999). [80] The first night of war on Bengalis, which is documented in telegrams from the American Consulate in Dhaka to the United States State Department, saw indiscriminate killings of students of Dhaka University and other civilians. [81] Numerous women were tortured, raped and killed during the war; the exact numbers are not known and are a subject of debate. Bangladeshi sources cite a figure of 200,000 women raped, giving birth to thousands of war babies. [82][83][84] The Pakistan Army also kept numerous Bengali women as sex-slaves inside the Dhaka Cantonment. Most of the girls were captured from Dhaka University and private homes. [85] There was significant sectarian violence not only perpetrated and encouraged by the Pakistani army, [86] but also by Bengali nationalists against non-Bengali minorities, especially Biharis. [87]

On 16 December 2002, the George Washington University's National Security Archive published a collection of declassified documents, consisting mostly of communications between US embassy officials and United States Information Service centres in Dhaka and India, and officials in Washington DC. [88] These documents show that US officials working in diplomatic institutions within Bangladesh used the terms "selective genocide" [89] and "genocide"

(see The Blood Telegram) for information on events they had knowledge of at the time). *Genocide* is the term that is still used to describe the event in almost every major publication and newspaper in Bangladesh, [90][91] although elsewhere, particularly in Pakistan, the actual death toll, motives, extent, and destructive impact of the actions of the Pakistani forces are disputed.

Foreign reaction

United Nations

Though the United Nations condemned the human rights violations during and following Operation Searchlight, it failed to defuse the situation politically before the start of the war.

Following Sheikh Mujibur Rahman's declaration of independence in March 1971, India undertook a world-wide campaign to drum up political, democratic and humanitarian support for the people of Bangladesh for their liberation struggle. Prime Minister Indira Gandhi toured a large number of countries in a bid to create awareness of the Pakistani atrocities against Bengalis. This effort was to prove vital later during the war, in framing the world's context of the war and to justify military action by India. [92] Also, following Pakistan's defeat, it ensured prompt recognition of the newly independent state of Bangladesh.

Following India's entry into the war, Pakistan, fearing certain defeat, made urgent appeals to the United Nations to intervene and force India to agree to a cease fire. The UN Security Council assembled on 4 December 1971 to discuss the hostilities in South Asia. After lengthy discussions on 7 December, the United States made a resolution for "immediate cease-fire and withdrawal of troops". While supported by the majority, the USSR vetoed the resolution twice. In light of the Pakistani atrocities against Bengalis, the United Kingdom and France abstained on the resolution. [64][93]

On 12 December, with Pakistan facing imminent defeat, the United States requested that the Security Council be reconvened. Pakistan's Deputy Prime Minister and Foreign Minister, Zulfikar Ali Bhutto, was rushed to New York City to make the case for a resolution on the cease fire. The council continued deliberations for four days. By the time proposals were finalised, Pakistan's forces in the East had surrendered and the war had ended, making the measures merely academic. Bhutto, frustrated by the failure of the resolution and the inaction of the United Nations, ripped up his speech and left the council. [93]

Most UN member nations were quick to recognize Bangladesh within months of its independence. [92]

USA and USSR

The United States supported Pakistan^[94] both politically and materially. U.S. President Richard Nixon denied getting involved in the situation, saying that it was an internal matter of Pakistan, but when Pakistan's defeat seemed certain, Nixon sent the aircraft carrier USS *Enterprise* to the Bay of Bengal,^[95] a move deemed by the Indians as a nuclear threat. *Enterprise* arrived on station on 11 December 1971. On 6 and 13 December, the Soviet Navy dispatched two groups of ships, armed with nuclear missiles, from Vladivostok; they trailed U.S. Task Force 74 in the Indian Ocean from 18 December until 7 January 1972.

Nixon and Henry Kissinger feared Soviet expansion into South and Southeast Asia. Pakistan was a close ally of the People's Republic of China, with whom Nixon had been negotiating a *rapprochement* and which he intended to visit in February 1972. Nixon feared that an Indian invasion of West Pakistan would mean total Soviet domination of the region, and that it would seriously undermine the global position of the United States and the regional position of America's new tacit ally, China. In order to demonstrate to China the *bona fides* of the United States as an ally, and in direct violation of the US Congress-imposed sanctions on Pakistan, Nixon sent military supplies to Pakistan and routed them through Jordan and Iran, ^[96] while also encouraging China to increase its arms supplies to Pakistan. The Nixon



The Nixon administration provided support to Pakistani President Yahya Khan during the turmoil

administration also ignored reports it received of the genocidal activities of the Pakistani Army in East Pakistan, most notably the Blood telegram.

The Soviet Union supported Bangladesh and Indian armies, as well as the Mukti Bahini during the war, recognising that the independence of Bangladesh would weaken the position of its rivals – the United States and China. It gave assurances to India that if a confrontation with the United States or China developed, the USSR would take countermeasures. This was enshrined in the Indo-Soviet friendship treaty signed in August 1971. The Soviets also sent a nuclear submarine to ward off the threat posed by USS *Enterprise* in the Indian Ocean.

At the end of the war, the Warsaw Pact countries were among the first to recognize Bangladesh. The Soviet Union accorded recognition to Bangladesh on 25 January 1972. The United States delayed recognition for some months, before according it on 8 April 1972. [98]

China

As a long-standing ally of Pakistan, the People's Republic of China reacted with alarm to the evolving situation in East Pakistan and the prospect of India invading West Pakistan and Pakistani-controlled Kashmir. Believing that just such an Indian attack was imminent, Nixon encouraged China to mobilise its armed forces along its border with India to discourage it. The Chinese did not, however, respond to this encouragement, because unlike the 1962 Sino-Indian War when India was caught entirely unaware, this time the Indian Army was prepared and had deployed eight mountain divisions to the Sino-Indian border to guard against such an eventuality. ^[64] China instead threw its weight behind demands for an immediate ceasefire.

When Bangladesh applied for membership to the United Nations in 1972, China vetoed their application^[99] because two United Nations resolutions regarding the repatriation of Pakistani prisoners of war and civilians had not yet been implemented.^[100] China was also among the last countries to recognize independent Bangladesh, refusing to do so until 31 August 1975.^{[92][99]}

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External links

- Banglapedia article on the Liberation war of Bangladesh (http://banglapedia.search.com.bd/HT/W_0020. htm)
- 1971 Bangladesh Genocide Archive (http://www.genocidebangladesh.org/)
- Video Streaming of 5 Liberation war documentaries (http://www.banglagallery.net/vdo/index.php)
- Video, audio footage, news reports, pictures and resources from Mukto-mona (http://www.mukto-mona.com/ 1971/English/archive.htm)
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Graphic images, viewer discretion advised

1971 Bangladesh atrocities

Beginning with the start of Operation Searchlight on 25 March 1971 and due to the Bangladesh Liberation War, there were numerous human rights abuses in East Pakistan (now Bangladesh) perpetrated by the Pakistan Army, with support from local political and religious militias, especially against Hindus. [1][2] *Time* reported a high ranking U.S. official as saying "It is the most incredible, calculated thing since the days of the Nazis in Poland." [3]

Bangladeshi authorities claim that as many as 3 million people were killed, although the Hamoodur Rahman Commission, an official Pakistan Government investigation, put the figure as low as 26,000 civilian casualties.^[4] The international media and reference books in English have also published figures which vary greatly from 200,000 to 3,000,000 for Bangladesh as a whole, with 300,000 to 500,000 being a figure quoted by news outlets such as the BBC for the estimated death toll as counted by independent researchers.^[5] As a result of the conflict, a further eight to ten million people fled the country at the time to seek refuge in neighboring India.^[6]

Many of those killed were the victims of militias who fought with the West Pakistan Army: Razakars, Al-Shams and Al-Badr forces, ^[7] at the instruction of the Pakistani Army. ^[8] There are many mass graves in Bangladesh, and more are continually being discovered (such as one in an old well near a mosque in Dhaka, located in the non-Bengali region of the city, which was discovered in August 1999). ^[9] The first night of war on Bengalis, which is documented in telegrams from the American Consulate in Dhaka to the United States State Department, saw indiscriminate killings of students of Dhaka University and other civilians. ^[10]

Some women were raped, tortured and killed during the war. The exact numbers are not known and are a subject of debate with some sources quoting figures as high as 400,000. One particular revelation concerns 563 young Bengali women, some only 18, who were held captive inside Dhaka's dingy military cantonment since the first days of the fighting. They were seized from Dhaka University and private homes and forced into military brothels, with some of the women carrying war babies being released.^[11]

There was significant sectarian violence not only perpetrated by the West Pakistani army,^[1] but also by Bengali nationalists against non-Bengali minorities, especially Biharis.^[12]

On 16 December 2002, the George Washington University's National Security Archive published a collection of declassified documents, consisting mostly of communications between US embassy officials and USIS centers in Dhaka and India, and officials in Washington DC. [13] These documents show that US officials working in diplomatic institutions within Bangladesh used the terms *selective genocide* [14][15] and *genocide* (see The Blood Telegram) to describe events they had knowledge of at the time. The complete chronology of events as reported to the Nixon administration can be found on the Department of State website. [16]

Every major publication and newspaper in Bangladesh and some international publications on genocide and human rights abuses use the term genocide to describe the event. [17][18][19][20][21]

Matthew J. White, in his 2012 book *The Great Big Book of Horrible Things*, estimates the total death toll of the Bengali genocide at 1.5 million. He ranks the Bengali genocide as the third worst genocide of the 20th century, after the The Holocaust (the Jewish genocide), for which he gives an estimate of 5.5 million, and the Holodomor (the Ukrainian genocide), for which he gives an estimate of 4.2 million.^[22]

Operation Searchlight

Operation Searchlight was a planned military operation carried out by the Pakistan Army to curb elements of the separatist Bengali nationalist movement in erstwhile East Pakistan in March 1971. Ordered by the government in West Pakistan, this was seen as the sequel to Operation Blitz which had been launched in November 1970.

The original plan envisioned taking control of the major cities on 26 March 1971, and then eliminating all opposition, political or military, [24] within one month. The prolonged Bengali resistance was not anticipated by Pakistani planners. [25] The main phase of Operation Searchlight ended with the fall of the last major town in Bengali hands in mid May.

Casualties

The number of civilians that died in the Bangladesh War is not accurately known. There is a great disparity in the casualty figures put forth by Pakistan on one hand (25,000, as reported in the Hamoodur Rahman Commission^[26]) and India and Bangladesh on the other hand. (From 1972 to 1975 the first post-war prime minister of Bangladesh, Sheikh Mujibur Rahman, claimed on several occasions that at least three million died). The international media and reference books in English have also published figures which vary greatly: varying from 5,000–35,000 in Dhaka, and 200,000–3,000,000 for Bangladesh as a whole. Virtual Bangladesh: History: The Bangali Genocide, 1971 [28] </re> It is believed in certain quarters that the figure of three million has its origins in comments made by Yahya Khan to the journalist Robert Payne on 22 February 1971: "Kill three million of them, and the rest will eat out of our hands." [29][30]

In October 1997 R. J. Rummel published a book, which is available on the web, titled *Statistics of Democide:* Genocide and Mass Murder Since 1900. In Chapter 8, Statistics Of Pakistan's Democide - Estimates, Calculations, And Sources, he states:

In East Pakistan (now Bangladesh) [General Agha Mohammed Yahya Khan and his top generals] also planned to murder its Bengali intellectual, cultural, and political elite. They also planned to indiscriminately murder hundreds of thousands of its Hindus and drive the rest into India. And they planned to destroy its economic base to insure that it would be subordinate to West Pakistan for at least a generation to come. This despicable and cutthroat plan was outright genocide. [6]

Rummel goes on to collate what he considers the most credible estimates published by others into what he calls democide. He writes that "Consolidating both ranges, I give a final estimate of Pakistan's democide to be 300,000 to 3,000,000, or a prudent 1,500,000."

The Office of the Historian of the United States Department of State held a two-day conference in late June 2005 on U.S. policy in South Asia between 1961 and 1972. [31] According to a newspaper report published in both Pakistani and Bangladeshi newspapers, Bangladeshi speakers at the conference stated that the official Bangladeshi figure of civilian deaths was close to 300,000, which was wrongly translated from Bengali into English as three million. Ambassador Shamsher M. Chowdhury acknowledged that Bangladesh alone cannot correct this mistake and suggested that Pakistan and Bangladesh should form a joint commission to investigate the 1971 disaster and prepare a report. [32]

Killing of intellectuals

During the war, the Pakistan Army and its local collaborators carried out a systematic execution of the leading Bengali intellectuals. A number of professors from Dhaka University were killed during the first few days of the war. [2][33] However, the most extreme cases of targeted killing of intellectuals took place during the last few days of the war. Professors, journalists, doctors, artists, engineers, writers were rounded up by Pakistan Army and the Razakar militia in Dhaka, blindfolded, taken to torture cells in Mirpur, Mohammadpur, Nakhalpara, Rajarbagh and other locations in different sections of the city to be executed en masse, most notably at Rayerbazar and

Mirpur. [34][35][36][37] Allegedly, the Pakistani Army and its paramilitary arm, the Al-Badr and Al-Shams forces created a list of doctors, teachers, poets, and scholars. [38][39]

During the nine month duration of the war, the Pakistani army, with the assistance of local collaborators systematically executed an estimated 991 teachers, 13 journalists, 49 physicians, 42 lawyers, and 16 writers, artists and engineers. [36] Even after the official ending of the war on 16 December there were reports of firing from the armed Pakistani soldiers or their collaborators. In one such incident, notable film-maker Jahir Raihan was killed on January 30, 1972 in Mirpur allegedly by the armed Beharis. In memory of the persons killed, December 14 is mourned in Bangladesh as Shaheed Buddhijibi Dibosh ("Day of the Martyred Intellectuals"). [8][40][41]

Several noted intellectuals who were killed from the time period of 25 March to 16 December 1971 in different parts of the country include Dhaka University professors Dr. Govinda Chandra Dev (Philosophy), Dr. Munier Chowdhury (Bengali Literature), Dr. Munier Chowdhury (Bengali Literature), Dr. Anwar Pasha (Bengali Literature), Dr. M Abul Khair (History), Dr. Jyotirmoy Guhathakurta (English Literature), Humayun Kabir (English Literature), Rashidul Hasan (English Literature) and Saidul Hassan (Physics), as well Dr. Hobibur Rahman (Professor of Mathematics at Rajshahi University), Dr. Mohammed Fazle Rabbee (Cardiologist), Dr. Alim Chowdhury (Ophthalmologist), Shahidullah Kaiser (Journalist), Nizamuddin Ahmed (Journalist), Fazle Rabbee (Philanthropist) Shahidullah Kaiser (Journalist), Dhirendranath Datta (Politician), Ranadaprasad Saha (Philanthropist) and Ayman Zaman (Entrepreneur & Musician). Shaheed Mohammad Salimullah (philanthropist)Shaheed Salimullah had been killed in front of his house, the road near his house was named after him in Dhaka, Mohammadpur, the roads name "Shaheed Salimullah".

Violence against women

Numerous women were tortured, raped and killed during the war.^[43] Again, exact numbers are not known and are a subject of debate. Bangladeshi sources cite a figure of 200,000 women raped, giving birth to thousands of war-babies. The Pakistan Army also kept numerous Bengali women as sex-slaves inside the Dhaka Cantonment. Most of the girls were captured from Dhaka University and private homes.^[11]

Among other sources, Susan Brownmiller refers to an even higher number of over 400,000. Pakistani sources claim the number is much lower, though having not completely denied rape incidents. [44][45][46] Brownmiller quotes: [47]

Khadiga, thirteen years old, was interviewed by a photojournalist in Dacca. She was walking to school with four other girls when they were kidnapped by a gang of Pakistani soldiers. All five were put in a military brothel in Mohammedpur and held captive for six months until the end of the war.

The licentious attitude of the soldiers, although generally supported by the superiors, alarmed the regional high command of Pakistan army. On April 15, 1971, in a secret memorandum to the divisional commanders, Niazi complained,

Since my arrival, I have heard numerous reports of troops indulging in loot and arson, killing people at random and without reasons in areas cleared of the anti state elements; of late there have been reports of rape and even the West Pakistanis are not being spared; on 12 April two East Pakistani women were raped, and an attempt was made on two others. [48]

Another work that has included direct experiences from the women raped is *Ami Birangona Bolchhi* ("I, the heroine, speak") by Nilima Ibrahim. The work includes in its name from the word *Birangona* (Heroine), given by Sheikh Mujibur Rahman after the war, to the raped and tortured women during the war. This was a conscious effort to alleviate any social stigma the women might face in the society. How successful this effort was is doubtful, though. In October 2005 Sarmila Bose (a Boston, Massachusetts born Harvard-educated Bengali Indian academic), published a paper suggesting that the casualties and rape allegations in the war have been greatly exaggerated for political purposes. [49][50] A number of researchers have shown inaccuracies in the work, including flawed methodology of statistical analysis, misrepresentation of referenced sources, and disproportionate weight to Pakistan army testimonies. [51]

Violence against minorities

The minorities of Bangladesh, especially the Hindus, were specific targets of the Pakistan army. [1][2] There was widespread killing of Hindu males, and rapes of women. Documented incidents in which Hindus were massacred in large numbers include the Chuknagar massacre, the Jathibhanga massacre, and the Shankharipara massacre. [52] More than 60% of the Bengali refugees who fled to India were Hindus. [53] It is not exactly known what percentage of the people killed by the Pakistan army were Hindus, but it is safe to say it was disproportionately high. [54] This widespread violence against Hindus was motivated by a policy to purge East Pakistan of what was seen as Hindu and Indian influences. The West Pakistani rulers identified the Bengali culture with Hindu and Indian culture, and thought that the eradication of Hindus would remove such influences from the majority Muslims in East Pakistan. [55] Buddhist temples and Buddhist monks were also attacked through the course of the year.

R.J. Rummel has stated states that

These "willing executioners" were fueled by an abiding anti-Bengali racism, especially against the Hindu minority. "Bengalis were often compared with monkeys and chickens. Said General Niazi, 'It was a low lying land of low lying people.' The Hindus among the Bengalis were as Jews to the Nazis: scum and vermin that [should] best be exterminated. As to the Moslem Bengalis, they were to live only on the sufferance of the soldiers: any infraction, any suspicion cast on them, any need for reprisal, could mean their death. And the soldiers were free to kill at will. The journalist Dan Coggin quoted one Pakistani captain as telling him, "We can kill anyone for anything. We are accountable to no one." This is the arrogance of Power.

—R.J. Rummel, Death by Government^[57]

Violence against alleged collaborators

In 1947, at the time of partition and the establishment of the state of Pakistan, Bihari Muslims, many of whom were fleeing the violence that took place during partition, migrated from India to the newly independent East Pakistan. These Urdu-speaking people held a disproportionate number in the new country's population. Biharis were adverse to the Bengali language movement and the subsequent nationalist movements as they maintained allegiance toward West Pakistani rulers, causing anti-Bihari sentiments among local nationalist Bengalis. Between December 1970 and March 1971, Bengali nationalists subjected non-Bengali minorities, especially Biharis, to systematic persecution. It is estimated that between 15,000 and 50,000 Biharis were killed during this period, and is believed by some that elements of the Mukti Bahini, with active support from the BDR and intelligence, either led or failed to stop the violence against the Biharis. When the war broke out in 1971, the Biharis sided with the Pakistan army. Some of them joined Razakar and Al-Shams militia groups and participated in the persecution and genocide of their Bengali countrymen including the widespread looting of Bengali properties and abetting in other criminal activities against them.

There are many reports of massacres of Biharis and alleged collaborators that took place in the period following the surrender of the Pakistan Army on December 16, 1971. ^[58] In an incident on December 19, 1971, captured on camera and attended by members of foreign press, Abdul Kader Siddiqui and Mukti Bahini guerrilas under his command bayoneted and shot to death a group of war prisoners accused of belonging to the Razakar paramilitary forces. ^{[59][60]}

Genocide debate

Time reported a high U.S. official as saying "It is the most incredible, calculated thing since the days of the Nazis in Poland." ^[3] *Genocide* is the term that is used to describe the event in almost every major publication and newspaper in Bangladesh, ^{[17][61]} and is defined as "the deliberate and systematic destruction, in whole or in part, of an ethnic, racial, religious, or national group" ^[62]

A 1972 report by the International Commission of Jurists (ICJ) noted that both sides in the conflict accused each other of perpetrating genocide. The report observed that it may be difficult to substantiate claims that 'whole of the military action and repressive measures taken by the Pakistan army and their auxiliary forces constituted genocide' intended to destroy the Bengali people in whole or in part by the Pakistan army, and that 'preventing a nation from attaining political autonomy does not constitute genocide: the intention must be to destroy in whole or in part the people as such'. The difficulty of proving intent was considered to be further complicated by the fact that three specific sections of the Bengali people were targeted in killings by the Pakistan army and their collaborators: members of the Awami League, students, and East Pakistan citizens of Hindu religion. The report observed, however, that there are is strong prima facie case that there were particular acts of genocide committed, especially towards the end of the war, where Bengalis were targeted indiscriminately. Similarly, it was felt that there is a strong prima facie face that crimes of genocide were committed against the Hindu population of East Pakistan. [63]

As regards the massacres of non-Bengalis by Bengalis during and after the Liberation War, the ICJ report argued that it is improbable that 'spontaneous and frenzied mob violence against a particular section of the community from whom the mob senses danger and hostility is to be regarded as possessing the necessary element of conscious intent to constitute the crime of genocide', but that, if the dolus specialis were to be proved in particular cases, this would have constituted acts of genocide against non-Bengalis.^[64]

Many international publications on genocide and human rights abuses classify the atrocities of 1971 as an act of genocide by West Pakistan. [18][19][20][21][65]

After the minimum 20 countries became parties to the Genocide Convention, it came into force as international law on 12 January 1951. At that time however, only two of the five permanent members of the UN Security Council were parties to the treaty, and it was not until after the last of the last five permanent members ratified the treaty in 1988, and the Cold War came to an end, that the international law on the crime of genocide began to be enforced. As such, the allegation that genocide took place during the Bangladesh Liberation War of 1971 was never investigated by an international tribunal set up under the auspices of the United Nations.

Although both Pakistan and its primary ally USA have denied genocide allegations, ^[66] the word 'genocide' was and is used frequently amongst observers and scholars of the events that transpired during the 1971 war. ^{[6][67]} It is also used in some publications outside the subcontinent; for example, The Guinness Book of Records lists the Bengali atrocities as one of the top 5 genocides in the 20th century. ^[65]

On 16 December 2002, the George Washington University's National Security Archives published a collection of declassified documents, mostly consisting of communications between US officials working in embassies and USIS centers in Dhaka and in India, and officials in Washington DC.^[68] These documents show that US officials working in diplomatic institutions within Bangladesh used the terms 'selective genocide'^[14] and 'genocide' (Blood telegram) to describe events they had knowledge of at the time. They also show that President Nixon, advised by Henry Kissinger, decided to downplay this secret internal advice, because he wanted to protect the interests of Pakistan as he was apprehensive of India's friendship with the USSR, and he was seeking a closer relationship with China, who supported Pakistan.^[69]

In his book *The Trial of Henry Kissinger*, Christopher Hitchens elaborates on what he saw as the efforts of Kissinger to subvert the aspirations of independence on the part of the Bengalis. Hitchens not only claims that the term genocide is appropriate to describe the results of the struggle, but also points to the efforts of Henry Kissinger in undermining others who condemned the then ongoing atrocities as being a genocide. ^[70]

However according to Sarmila Bose, a senior research fellow at Oxford University, many Bangladeshi civilians themselves took part in the atrocities and Pakistani troops did not act alone her book has proved highly controversial within India and Bangladesh as the popular narrative she states within these countries is that Bangladeshi nationalists won independence in 1971 from Pakistan. She also stated that the death toll was highly inflated. [71]

War trial attempts

Immediately after the war, the topic of putting the war criminals to trial arose. Just as the war ended, Bangladeshi prime minister Tajuddin Ahmed admitted to Professor Anisuzzaman that the trial of the alleged Pakistani military personnel may not be possible because of pressures from the U.S., and that neither India nor the Soviet Union were interested in seeing a trial. As early as December 22, 1971, the Indian Army was conducting investigations of senior Pakistani Army officers connected to the massacre of intellectuals in Dhaka, with the aim of collecting sufficient evidence to have them tried as war criminals. They produced a list of officers who were in positions of command at the time, or were connected to the Inter-Services Screening Committee. [72]

On December 24, 1971 Home minister of Bangladesh A. H. M. Qamaruzzaman said, "war criminals will not survive from the hands of law. Pakistani military personnel who were involved with killing and raping have to face tribunal." In a joint statement after a meeting between Sheikh Mujib and Indira Gandhi, the Indian government assured that it would give all necessary assistance for bringing war criminals into justice. In February 1972, the government of Bangladesh announced plans to put 100 senior Pakistani officers and officials on trial for crimes of genocide. The list included General A. K. Niazi and four other generals. After the war, the Indian Army held 92,000 Pakistani prisoners of war, and 195 of those were suspected of committing war crimes. All 195 of them were released in April 1974 following the tripartite Simla agreement between Bangladesh, Pakistan and India, and repatriated to Pakistan, in return for Pakistan's recognition of Bangladesh. Furthermore, there was no obligation on Pakistan to carry out investigations of allegations against the suspects, or to provide reparation to Bangladesh.

On July 30, 2009, the Minister of Law, Justice and Parliamentary Affairs of Bangladesh stated that no Pakistanis would be tried under the International Crimes (Tribunals) Act 1973.^[76] This decision has drawn criticism by international jurists, as it effectively gives immunity to the army commanders of the Pakistan Army who are generally considered to be ultimately responsible for the majority of crimes of 1971.^[76]

Trials of collaborators

The Bangladesh Collaborators (Special Tribunals) Order 1972 was promulgated to bring to trial those Bangladeshis who collaborated with and aided the Pakistan Armed forces during the Liberation War of 1971. There are conflicting accounts of the number of persons brought to trial under the 1972 Collaborators Order, ranging between 10,000 and 40,000. At the time, the trials were considered problematic by local and external observers, as they appear to have been used for carrying out political vendettas. R. MacLennan, a British MP who was an observer at the trials stated that 'In the dock, the defendants are scarcely more pitiable than the succession of confused prosecution witnesses driven (by the 88-year old defence counsel) to admit that they, too, served the Pakistan government but are now ready to swear blind that their real loyalty was to the government of Bangladesh in exile. The Bangladesh in exile.

The government of Bangladesh issued a general amnesty on November 30, 1973, applying to all persons except those who were punished or accused of rape, murder, attempt of murder or arson. ^[78] The Collaborators Order 1972 was revoked in 1975.

The International Crimes (Tribunals) Act 1973 was promulgated to prosecute any persons, irrespective of nationality, accused of committing crimes against peace, crimes against humanity, war crimes, "violations of any humanitarian rules applicable in armed conflicts laid out in the Geneva Conventions of 1949" and "any other crimes under international law". [80] Detainees held under the 1972 Collaborators order who were not released by the general

amnesty of 1973 were going to be tried under this Act. However, no trials were actually held, and all activities related to the Act ceased after the assassination of Sheikh Mujibur Rahman in 1975.

There are no known instances of criminal investigations or trials outside of Bangladesh of alleged perpetrators of war crimes during the 1971 war. Initial steps were taken by the Metropolitan Police to investigate individuals resident in the United Kingdom who were alleged to have committed war crimes in a Channel 4 documentary film aired in 1995. To date, no charges have been brought against these individuals.^[81]

On December 29, 1991 Ghulam Azam, who was accused of being a collaborator with Pakistan during 1971, became the Chairman or Ameer of the political party Jamaat-e-Islami of Bangladesh, which caused controversy. This prompted the creation of a 'National Committee for Resisting the Killers and Collaborators of 1971', after a proposal of writer and political activist Jahanara Imam. A mock people's court was formed which on March 26, 1992, found Ghulam Azam guilty in a mock trial and sentenced him to death.

A case was filed in the Federal Court of Australia on September 20, 2006 for alleged crimes of genocide, war crimes and crimes against humanity during 1971 by the Pakistani Armed Forces and its collaborators. Raymond Solaiman & Associates acting for the plaintiff Mr. Solaiman, have released a press statement which among other things says:^[82]

We are glad to announce that a case has been filed in the Federal Magistrate's Court of Australia today under the Genocide Conventions Act 1949 and War Crimes Act. This is the first time in history that someone is attending a court proceeding in relation to the [alleged] crimes of Genocide, war crimes and crimes against humanity during 1971 by the Pakistani Armed Forces and its collaborators. The Proceeding number is SYG 2672 of 2006. On October 25, 2006, a direction hearing will take place in the Federal Magistrates Court of Australia, Sydney registry before Federal Magistrate His Honor Nicholls.

On May 21, 2007, at the request of the applicant "Leave is granted to the applicant to discontinue his application filed on September 20, 2006." (FILE NO: (P)SYG2672/2006)^[83]

In March 2010, the International Crimes Tribunal (ICT) was formed in Bangladesh to hold trials of Bangladeshi citizens accused of involvement in crimes against humanity, including genocide, rape, murder and arson during the 1971 Liberation war. The ICT, despite its name, is of local nature and has had no involvement from the United Nations. It has been criticised by the Human Rights Watch ^[84] and prominent Western jurists for bias and deficient legal provisions. ^[85]

Charge such as planning to commit crime, murder and torture have been framed against eight members, including former leader Ghulam Azam, of Jamaat-e-Islami party. Three of these have been indicted. The members have termed the charges as political. [86]

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Naval hostilities

Indo-Pakistani Naval War of 1971

The **Indo-Pakistani Naval warfare of 1971** were the series of aggressive naval battles fought by the Indian and Pakistani Navy during the Indo-Pakistani War of 1971. These battles were an integral part of India-Pakistan War of 1971 and the Pakistan war in Bangladesh. The series of naval operations began by the Indian Navy to exert pressure from the seas while the Indian Army and Indian Air Force moved in to close the ring round East Pakistan from several directions on land. The naval operations incorporated the naval interdiction, air defence, ground support, and logistics missions.

With the success of the Indian Navy's operations in East Pakistan, the Indian Navy commenced two large-scale operations, Operation Trident and Operation Python in the Western front, prior to the start of formal combat between India and Pakistan.

Background

The Indian Navy did not play a vital and integral role during the Indo-Pakistani War of 1965 as the war was more focused on the land based conflict. On September 7, a flotilla of the Pakistan Navy under the command of Commodore S.M. Anwar, carried out bombardment of the Indian Navy's radar station of Dwarka, which was 200 miles (300 km) south of the Pakistani port of Karachi. Having known as Operation Dwarka. This was one of the most significant operation of 1965 war. [1][2][3] This was a successful operation which caused the Indian Navy undergo rapid modernization and expansion. Consequently, the Indian Navy budget grew from Rs. 35 crores to Rs. 115 crores. The Indian Navy's Combatant Fleet was augmented by addition of Submarine squadron and acquisition of six Osa missile ship from the Soviet Union. The Indian Naval Air Arm was also strengthened. As the crises between East and West-Pakistan began, the Indian Armed Forces intervened, hence, starting the Bangladesh Liberation War.

Pakistani Eastern Naval Command

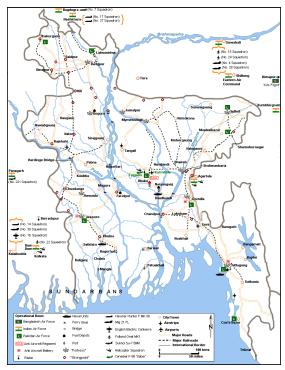
The Eastern Naval Command was established in 1969 and Rear-Admiral Mohammad Shariff (later four-star Admiral) was made its first Flag Officer Commanding. Admiral Shariff administratively ran the Eastern Naval Command, and was credited for leading the administrative operations of Eastern Naval Command. Under his command, SSG(N), Pakistan Marines and SEALs teams were well established, where they had ran both covert and overt operations in Eastern wing.

Having a well-established administrative Naval command, the Pakistan Combatant Forces' GHQ, Headquarter of Pakistan Army, had declined substantial naval contingent for the defense of East Pakistan. The Pakistan Naval Forces had inadequate ships to challenge the Indian Navy on both fronts, and the PAF was unable to protect these ships from both Indian Air Force and the Indian Naval Air Arm. Furthermore, Chief of Naval Staff of Pakistan Navy, Vice-Admiral Muzaffar Hassan, had ordered to deploy all of the naval power in Western-Front. Most of the Pakistan Navy's combatant vessels were deployed in West Pakistan while only one destroyer, PNS *Sylhet*, was assigned in East-Pakistan on the personal request of Admiral Shariff.

During the conflict, East Pakistan's naval ports were left defenseless as the Eastern Military Command of Pakistan had decided to fight the war without the navy and faced with a hopeless task against overwhelming odds, the navy planned to remain in the ports when war broke out.^[4]

In eastern wing, the Pakistan Navy had heavily depended on her gun boat squadron. The Pakistan's Eastern Naval Command was in direct command of Flag Officer Commanding (FOC) Rear-Admiral Mohammad Shariff who also served as the right-hand of Lieutenant-General Niazi. The Pakistan Navy had 4 (PNS *Jessore*, *Rajshahi*, *Comilla*, and *Sylhet*). The boats were capable of attaining maximum speed of 20 knots (37 km/h), were crewed by 29 sailors. Having known as Pakistan Navy's brown water navy, the gun boats were equipped with various weapons, including heavy machine guns. The boats were adequate for patrolling and led anti-insurgency operations. But they were hopelessly out of place in a conventional warfare. [6]

In the early of April, Pakistan Navy began the naval operations around the East-Pakistan to support the Army's executed Operation Searchlight. The Rear-Admiral



Locations of Pakistan Navy's Combatant forces on December 1971 in and around East Pakistan. Some unit locations are not shown. Map not to exact scale.

Mohammad Shariff had coordinated all of these projected missions. On April 26, Pakistan Navy had successfully completed the Operation Barisal, but it resulted in temporary occupation of city of Barisal.

The bloody ubran guerrilla warfare ensued and Operation Jackpot had severely damaged the operational capability of Pakistan Navy. Before the starting of the hostilities, all the naval gun boats were stationed at the Chittagong. As the air operations were begun, the IAF aircraft damaged the *Rajshahi*, while Comilla sunk on 4 December. On December 5, the IAF sank two patrol boats in Khulna. The PNS Sylhet was destroyed on December 6 and the Balaghat on December 9 by Indian aircraft. On 11 December, the PNS Jessore was destroyed, while *Rajshahi* was repaired. *Rajashahi* under the command of Lieutenant-Commander Shikder Hayat managed to evade the Indian blockade and reach Malaysia before the surrender on December 16.

Naval operations in the Eastern theatre

The Indian Navy started the covert naval operations, which were executed successfully. The Eastern Naval Command of Indian Navy had coordinated, planned, and executed these covert naval operations. In the end months of 1971, the Indian Navy's Eastern Naval Command had effectively applied a naval blockade which also completely isolated East-Pakistan's Bay of Bengal, trapping the Eastern Pakistan Navy and eight foreign merchant ships in their ports. The Pakistan Army's Combatant High Command, The GHQ, insisted and pressured Pakistan Navy to deploy PNS Ghazi and to extend its sphere of naval operations, into East-Pakistan shores. The Officer in Command of Submarine Service Branch of Pakistan Navy opposed the idea of deploying aging submarine, PNS Ghazi, in the Bay of Bengal. It was difficult to sustain prolonged operations in a distant area, in the total absence of repair, logistic and recreational facilities in the vicinity. At this time, submarine repair facilities were totally absent at Chittagong — the only sea port in the east during this period. Her commander and other officers objected the plan as when it was proposed by the senior Army and Naval officers.

In the Eastern wing of Pakistan, the Navy had never maintained a squadron of warships, despite the calls were made by Eastern Naval Command's Flag Officer Commanding Rear-Admiral Mohammad Shariff. Instead, a brown water navy was formed consisting a gun boats riverine craft on a permanent basis. Consequently, in eastern wing, repair and logistic facilities were not developed at Chittagong. The Indian Navy's Eastern Naval Command virtually faced no opposition from Eastern theater. The aircraft carrier INS *Vikrant*, along with her escort LST ships INS *Guldar*, INS *Gharial*, INS *Magar*, and the submarine INS *Khanderi*, executed their operations independently.

On December 4 of 1971, the INS *Vikrant*, the aircraft carrier, was also deployed in which its Sea Hawk attack aircrafts contributed in Air Operations in East Pakistan. The aircrafts successfully attacked many coastal towns in East Pakistan including Chittagong and Cox's Bazaar. The continuous attacks later dismantle the PAF's capability to retaliate. [8]

The Pakistan Navy responded by deploying her aging long-range submarine, PNS *Ghazi*, to counter the threat as the Naval Command had overruled the objections by her officers. The PNS *Ghazi*, under the command of Commander Zafar Muhammad Khan, was assumed to locate the INS *Vikrant*, but when it was not able to locate, decided to mine the port of Vishakapatnam – the Headquarter of Eastern Naval Command. [9] The Indian Navy's Naval Intelligence laid a trap to sink the submarine by giving fake reports about the aircraft carrier. At around midnight of 3–4 December, the PNS *Ghazi* began its operation of laying mines. While Indian Navy dispatched INS Rajput to counter the threat.



Pakistan's *Ghazi* was the only long range submarine operated by either of the warring nations in 1965. The sinking of PNS *Ghazi* played a point of turning role in Indian Naval operations in East Pakistan

The INS *Rajput's* sonar radar reported the disturbance underwater and two of the depth charges were released.^[10] The deadly game ended when the submarine sank mysteriously while laying a mine with all 92 hands on board around midnight on 3 December 1971 off the Vishakapatnam coast.^{[11][12]}

The sinking of *Ghazi* turned out to be a major blow and set back for Pakistan Naval operations in East-Pakistan. ^[13] It diminished the possibilities of carry out the large scale of Pakistan naval operations in Bay of Bengal. It also eliminated further threat possessed by Pakistan Navy to Indian Eastern Naval Command. On reconnaissance mission, the *Ghazi* was ordered to report back to her garrison on November 26, and admitted a report Naval Combatant Headquarter, NHQ. However, it was failed to return to her garrison. Anxiety grew day by day at the NHQ and NHQ had pressed frantic efforts to establish communications with the submarine failed to produce results. By the December 3rd prior to starting of the war, the doubts about the fate of submarine had already began to agitate the commanders at the Naval Headquarter (NHQ).

On 5/6 December 1971, naval air operations were carried out Chittagong, Khulna, and Mangla harbours, and at ships in the Pussur river. The oil installations were destroyed at Chittagong, and the Greek merchant ship Thetic Charlie was sunk at the outer anchorage. On December 7/8, the airfields of PAF were destroyed, and the campaign continued until 9 December. On December 12, Pakistan Navy laid mines on amphibious landing approaches to Chittagong. This proves a useful trap for some time, and it had denied any direct access to Chittagong port for a long time, even after the instrument of surrender had been signed. The Indian Navy therefore decided to carry out an amphibious landing at Cox Bazar with the aim cutting off the line of re-treat for Pakistan Army troops. On December 12, additional amphibious battalion was aboard on INS Vishwa Vijaya was sailed from Calcutta port. On the night of December 15/16, the amphibious landing was carried out, immediately after IAF bombardment of the beach a day earlier. After fighting for days, the human cost was very high for Pakistani forces, and no opposition or resistance was offered by Pakistani forces to Indian forces. During this episode Eastern theater, Indian forces suffered only 2 deaths in the operation. While, Pakistan forces was reported to suffered hundreds death. By the dawn of 17 December, Indian Navy was free to operate at will in the Bay of Bengal.

Furthermore, the successful Indian Air Operations and Operation Jackpot, led by the Bengali units with the support of Indian Army, had undermine the operational capability of Pakistan Navy. Many naval officers (mostly Bengalis) had defected from the Navy and fought against the Pakistan Navy. By the time Pakistan Defences Forces surrendered, the Navy had suffered the most damages as almost all of the gun boats, destroyer (PNS *Sylhet*), and the long-range submarine, PNS *Ghazi*, was lost in the conflict, including their officers.

On December 16, at 16:13hrs, Deputy Command of Eastern Command and the Commander of Eastern Naval Command, Rear-Admiral Mohammad Shariff surrendered his Naval Command to Vice-Admiral R.N. Krishna Eastern Naval Command. [15] His TT Pistol is still placed in "cover glass" where his name is printed in big golden alphabets at the Indian Military Academy's Museum. [15] In 1972, U.S. Navy's Chief of Naval Operations (CNO) and Indian Navy's Chief of Naval Staff Admiral Sardarilal Mathradas Nanda also paid him a visit with basket of fruits and cakes which initially surprised him, and was concern of his health. [15] While meeting with them, Admiral Shariff summed up that:

At then end of conflict.... We [Eastern Naval Command] had no intelligence and hence, were both deaf and blind with the Indian Navy and Indian Air Force pounding us day and night....

—Admiral Mohammad Sharif telling Admiral Zumwalt in 1971, [15]

Sinking of INS Khukri

As the Indian military offensive in East Pakistan increases, the Pakistan Navy had dispatched her entire submarine squadron on both front. Codename *Operation Falcon*, the Pakistan Navy began their reconnaissance submarine operations by deploying PNS *Hangor*, a Daphné class submarine, near the coastal water of West-Pakistan, and PNS *Ghazi*, Tench class submarine long range submarine, near the coastal areas of East-Pakistan.

According to the Lieutenant R. Qadri, an Electrical engineer officer at *Hangor* during the time, the assigned mission was considered quite difficult and highly dangerous, with the submarine squadron sailing under the assumption that the dangerous nature of this mission meant a great mortal risk to the submarine and her crew.

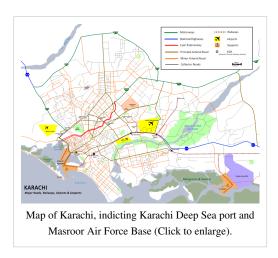
On the midnight of 21 November 1971, PNS *Hangor*, under the command of Commander Ahmed Tasnim, began her reconnaissance operations. Both PNS *Ghazi* and PNS *Hangor* maintained coordination and communication throughout patrol operations.

On December 2 and 3 December, *Hangor* had detected a large formation of ships from Indian Navy's Western fleet which included cruiser INS *Mysore*. *Hangor* had passed an intelligence to Pakistan naval forces of a possible attack by the observed Indian Armada near Karachi. The Indian Naval Intelligence intercepted these transmissions, and dispatched two ASW frigates, INS *Khukri* and the INS *Kirpan* of 14th Squadron - Western Naval Command.

On 9 December 1971, at 1957 hours, *Hangor* sunk *Khukri* with two homing torpedoes. According to her commander, the frigate sank within the matter of two minutes. ^[16] The frigate sank with 192 hands on board. *Hangor* also attacked the INS *Kirpan* on two separate occasions, but the torpedoes had missed their target. *Kirpan* quickly disengaged and successfully evaded the fired torpedoes.

Attack on Karachi

On 4 December, the Indian Navy, equipped with P-15 Termit anti-ship missiles, launched Operation Trident against the port of Karachi. During this time, Karachi was home to the Headquarters of the Pakistan Navy as well as the backbone of Pakistan's economy. The Indian Navy's preemptive strike resulted in an ultimate success. The Indian missile ships successfully sunk the minesweeper PNS *Muhafiz* and the destroyer PNS *Khaibar*. Operation Trident was an enormous success with no physical damage to any of the ships in the Indian task group, which returned safely to their garrison.



Pakistan Airforce retaliated to these attacks by bombing Okha harbour scoring direct hits on fuelling facilities for missile boats, ammunition dump and the missile boats jetty. [17][18] Indians were ready for this and had already moved the missile boats to other locations to prevent any losses. [19] But the destruction of the special fuel tank prevented any further incursions until Operation Python. [19] On the way back from the bombing the PAF aircrafts encountered an Alize 203 Indian aircraft and shot it down. [11]

On December 6, a false alarm by a Pakistani Fokker aircraft carrying naval observers caused a friendly fire confrontation between Pakistan's Navy and Air Force. A PAF jet mistakenly strafed the frigate PNS *Zulfikar*, breaking off shortly after the ship

got itself recognized by frantic efforts. The crew suffered some casualties besides the damage to ship. The ship was taken back to port for repair. [20]

The Indian Navy launched a second large-scale operation on the midnight of December 8 and December 9 of 1971. The operation, codenamed Operation Python, was commenced under the command of Chief of Naval Staff of the Indian Navy Admiral S.M. Nanda. [21] The INS *Vinash*, a missile boat, and two multipurpose frigates, *INS Talwar* and *INS Trishul* participated in the operation. The attack squadron approached Karachi and fired four missiles. During the raid, the Panamanian vessel *Gulf Star*, Pakistan Navy's PNS *Dacca*, a destroyer, and the British ship SS *Harmattan* were badly damaged. More than 50% of Karachi's total fuel reserves were destroyed in the attack. [20][22] More than \$3 billion [20] worth of economic and social sector damage was inflicted by the Indian Navy. Most of Karachi's oil reserves were lost and warehouses and naval workshops destroyed. [20] The operation damaged the Pakistani economy and hindered the Pakistan Navy's operations along the western coast. [23][24]

Ending

After the successful operations by Indian Navy, India had established complete control over the oil route from the Persian Gulf to Pakistani ports. The Pakistani Navy's main ships were either destroyed or forced to remain in port. A partial naval blockade was imposed by the Indian Navy on the port of Karachi and no merchant ship could approach Karachi. Shipping traffic to and from Karachi, Pakistan's only major port at that time, ceased. Within a few days after the attacks on Karachi, the Eastern fleet of Indian Navy had success over the Pakistani forces in East Pakistan. By the end of the war, the Indian Navy controlled the seas around both the wings of Pakistan.

The War ended for both the fronts after the *Instrument of Surrender* of Pakistani forces stationed in East Pakistan was signed at Ramna Race Course in Dhaka at 16.31 IST on 16 December 1971, by Lieutenant General Jagjit Singh Aurora, General Officer Commanding-in-chief of Eastern Command of the Indian Army and Lieutenant General A. A. K. Niazi, Commander of Pakistani forces in East Pakistan.

In a thesis written by Admiral Shariff in 2010, Admiral Shariff wrote that "the generals in Air Force and Army, were blaming each other for their failure whilst each of them projected them as hero of the war who fought well and inflicted heavy casualties on the advancing Indians". [28] At the end, each general officers in the Air Force and Army placed General Niazi's incompetency and failure as responsible for causing the war, Sharif concluded. [28] Sharif also noted that:

The initial military success (*Searchlight* and *Barisal*) in regaining the law and order situation in East-Pakistan in March of 1971 was misunderstood as a complete success.... In actuality, the law and order situation deteriorated with time, particularly after September of the same year when the population turned increasingly against the [Pakistan] Armed Forces as well as the [Yahya's military] government. The rapid increase in the number of troops though bloated the overall strength, however, [it] did not add to our fighting strength to the

extent that was required. A sizeable proportion of the new additions were too old, inexperienced or unwilling....

—Admiral Mohammad Sharif, Commander of Eastern Naval Command, [28]

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Air operations

East Pakistan Air Operations, 1971

East Pakistan Air Operations incorporate the interdiction, air defence, ground support, and logistics missions flown by the Indian Air Force and the Bangladesh Air Force in support of the advancing Mitro Bahini (called **Operation Cactus Lilly**) in the eastern theatre of the Indo-Pakistani conflict of 1971. Although the first of the engagements between the opposing airpowers occurred before the formal declaration of hostilities, the events described below include only those conducted after the declaration of war. Indian Air force also helped the Mukti Bahini form a formation of light aircraft called *Kilo flight*, which was manned and serviced by Bengali pilots and technicians who had defected from the Pakistan Air Force. This unit had launched attacks on targets in Bangladesh on December 3, 1971, prior to the start of formal combat between India and Pakistan.

Background

The Indo-Pakistani War of 1971 was one of the defining conflicts which led to the birth of the new nation of Bangladesh. The engagements between the Mitro Bahini against the Pakistani Army lasted a short but intense 14 days, between 3 December and 16 December 1971. The speedy conclusion was only possible because the objectives set by the Mitro Bahini in the east were achieved in that time. This was only possible due to excellent co-ordination between the Indian Army, Air Force, and the Navy and the Mukti Bahini.

Although the western theatre saw engagements that have defined the rules of 20th century warfare, including the Battle of Longewala, Operation Trident, as well as Battle of the bases between the two rival Air Forces, the eastern theatre would be marked by a near total domination by the Indian Forces and the Mitro Bahini. Two major reasons stand out, the first and major was the fact that the Bengali population and the Awami League led resistance had already greatly weakened the Pakistani Forces. The second, and possibly equally important, is the total air supremacy that the IAF came to achieve within the opening days of the war.

The Eastern Theater: Historical Background

East Pakistan saw no air combat when Pakistan and India came to blows over Kashmir in 1947, although both countries possessed functional air forces. All Pakistani air assets were deployed in West Pakistan at the time, and India also concentrated on the Western front as well. India began upgrading its air capabilities on its eastern border after the war—in 1958 the Eastern **operational group** was formed in Kolkata, which was upgraded into a command the following year. Following the Sino-Indian War of 1962, the Eastern Air command HQ shifted to Shillong and extensive efforts to increase its operational capabilities (in terms of number of squadrons and modernization of its warplanes and operational infrastructure) began, as added emphasis was given to countering any possible Chinese threat. In contrast, Pakistan High Command posted only 1 squadron of 12 F-86 Canadair Sabres in East Pakistan. The Sabres were deployed at Dhaka on October 1964, while PAF infrastructure development in the province was largely ignored.

1965 Indo-Pakistan War: Eastern Theater

Air forces of both countries actively launched attacks against each other during the Indo-Pakistan War of 1965 in the eastern theater. The IAF bombed airfields and airstrips located in East Pakistan (at Chittagong, Dhaka, Lalmanurhat and Jessore) and the PAF managed to launch two celebrated raids on the Indian Air Force base at Kalaikudda, West Bengal. The PAF raids, which took place on September 7, destroyed several Canberra bombers and Vampire aircraft on the ground while the IAF claimed 2 aerial kills (Pakistani sources record 1 F-86 lost). The first PAF Kalaikudda raid by 5 Sabres had achieved total surprise but the second wave was opposed by Indian interceptors, leading to the loss. The PAF also launched attacks on Bagdogra on September 10 and Barrackpur on September 14, with varying results. The IAF did hit back with airstrikes on Dacca, Jessore and Lalmunirhat, but failed to destroy any aircraft. Mid-air interceptions and dogfights rarely happened, and barring some skirmishing between the EPR and BSF along the border, the air forces of both countries provided most of the combat activities in the eastern theater during the 1965 War. The final tally was 12 Indian aircraft destroyed on the ground (PAF claim is 21 aircraft destroyed) and 2 Pakistani Sabres shot down^[1] (PAF records one aircraft lost) and 1 PAF Sabre lost due to accident. Following the war, the IAF continued its steady growth in combat capacity, while Pakistan boosted its squadron strength to 20 planes, although it neglected to expand its operational infrastructure substantially.

PAF during Operation Searchlight in 1971

PAF had 20 Canadair Sabres (No 14. Squadron *Tail-choppers*),^[2] three T-33 trainers and two helicopters stationed in East Pakistan, while army aviation squadron No.4 had eight helicopters present for service. PAF operational effectiveness suffered a little because most Bengali pilots and technicians had been grounded during the political unrest in March 1971. When Operation Searchlight was launched to quell the Awami League led political movement, PAF contribution was crucial to its success.

Pakistan high command had been using four C-130 Hercules planes and the entire PIA fleet was employed to transfer troops to East Pakistan and after the war started, two entire infantry division in an operation dubbed Great Fly-In was airlifted to East Pakistan from West Pakistan between March 26 – May 2. [3] The Pakistani airplanes had to make the trip to East Pakistan via Sri Lanka as overflights over India had been banned since February 1971. Moving two entire infantry divisions, which were sorely needed to bolster the army in East Pakistan where it was facing stiff opposition in a span of two weeks was a vital factor in sustaining the army operation. Most Pakistani army bases in East Pakistan had been cut off from each other since March 29 and Helicopters and C-130 planes were used to ferry troops and munitions to army bases cut off from supplies and surrounded by the Mukti Bahini, and this proved crucial for the initial survival and ultimate success of the Pakistani troops during the early phases of the battle. [4][5][6] Helicopters also evacuated the Pakistani wounded from isolated bases, acted as artillery spotters, flew reconnaissance missions over hostile territory and dropped combat troops off in remote places to outflank and cutoff Mukti Bahini positions. [7] The PAF enjoyed total air supremacy during March – November as the Mukti Bahini lacked both planes and air defense capability to counter their efforts, and flew nearly 100 to 170 sorties between March - November in support of the army. Pakistani forces defeated the Bengali resistance by mid-May 1971 and occupied the province by June, 1971. The PAF had requisitioned and jury-rigged crop dusters and light civilian aircraft to augment its recon and ground attack capabilities during this period.

PAF preparations for Indian intervention

Pakistan high command was fully aware that the IAF considerably outnumbered the PAF eastern detachment and they held the qualitative edge as well in the eastern theater. Pakistani planners had anticipated the PAF being neutralized with 24 hours of the IAF commencing combat operations over East Pakistan. [8] There was only one fully functional airbase (at Tejgaon near Dhaka) in East Pakistan, all the satellite air bases in the province lacked the service facilities for sustaining prolonged operations. The PAF had plans to deploy a squadron of Shenyang F-6 planes at Kurmitola (Now Shahjalal International Airport) in 1971, these planes were temporarily deployed but

ultimately withdrawn because, although the runway was functional at that base, the base was not fully functional to support the planes. and the lack of infrastructure meant PAF could not deploy additional planes. [9] This marginalization or neglect of East Pakistan defense since 1948 had hamstrung the PAF Eastern contingent in 1971, when its capabilities was put to the test. Pakistan deployed no additional air defence assets other than the one light Ack-Ack regiment and a few batteries to assist the PAF in 1971. The 6th light Ack Ack guarded Dhaka, ^[10] 46th Light Ack-Ack battery was in Chittagong, [11] and elements of the 43rd Ack-Ack were present in areas around East Pakistan. The caliber of the regiment was not enhanced to heavy, and no SAMs were deployed in East Pakistan. The only long range radar (Russian P-35 model) was also taken to West Pakistan along with all the C-130 Hercules planes. Several *Dummies* were deployed at the airbases to deceive the IAF. To augment the short radar cover, which could now provide only a 3-5 minute warning to the planes, observers were deployed around the country armed with radios and telephones. They in turn were exposed to Mukti Bahini attacks, which reduced their effectiveness. The IAF had flown reconnaissance flights over East Pakistan since June 1971 and had engaged their opponents earlier in the east than they did in the west, having clashed with PAF over the Salient of Boyra in West Bengal on 22 November. Between then and 3 December 1971, there were no engagements of the two airforces. Pakistanis had lost 3 planes (2 shot down and 1 damaged) on November 22 over Boyra, so were down to 17 operational Sabres in December 1971 as no replacement aircraft were sent from West Pakistan.

IAF Operations in 1971

The IAF had assembled units from the Central and Eastern Air commands in Eastern command bases for the campaign by December 1971. The Central Air Command HQ was located at Allahabad while the Eastern Command was HQed in Shillong, so Air Marshal P.C Lal created an advanced HQ at Fort William to better coordinate matters after a consultation with Lt. Gen. Jacob, COS Army Eastern Command. [12] in addition to redrawing the operational boundaries of the respective commands for the campaign. Several Central Command units were temporarily housed in Eastern Air Command bases for the duration of the campaign.

Eastern Air Command Order of Battle 1971

Western Sector:^[13] (Operating on the west of Jamuna river)

- No. 22 Squadron (Swifts): Folland Gnat MK 1
 Dumdum, then Kalaikudda, then Calcutta (WC Sikand)
- No. 30 Squadron (Charging Rhinos): Mig 21 FL — Kalaikudda (WC Chudda) - Fighter Interceptor
- No. 14 Squadron (*Bulls*): Hawker Hunter F.
 MK 56 Kalaikudda (WC Sundersan) Fighter
- No. 16 Squadron (*Rattlers*): Canberra -Kalaikudda - (WC Gautum) - Bomber
- No. 221 Squadron (*Valiants*): Su-7 BMK Fighter/Bomber
- No. 7 Squadron (*Battle Axes*): Hawker Hunter
 F. MK 56 and 2 F. MK 1 Bagdogra (WC
 Ceolho, then WC Suri). The squadron was
 moved Chamb after December 12.
- No. 104 (Alluotte 3) and No. 104 (Mi-4) Heli units

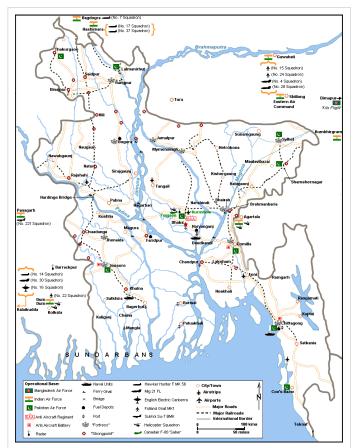
North East and North Western Sector:^[13] (Areas to the East of Jamuna River)

CO: Air Vice Marshal Devasher HQ: Shillong

- No. 17 Squadron (Golden Arrows): Hawker Hunter F MK 56 - Hashimara (WC Chatrath)
- No 37 Squadron (Black Panthers): Hawker Hunter F MK 10 Hashimara (WC Kaul)
- No. 4 Squadron (*Oorials*): Mig 21 FL Gauhati (WC JV Gole)
- No. 24 Squadron (*Hunting Hawks*): Folland Gnat Gauhati (WC Bhadwar)
- No. 15 Squadron (Flying Lancers): Folland Gnat Gauhati then Agortala (WC Singh)
- No. 28 Squadron (First Supersonics): Mig 21FL Gauhati (WC Bishnu)
- No. 105 (Mi-4) and 121 (Alouette III) Helicopter Squadrons Agartola

Mukti Bahini airforce: Kilo Flight

The Indian Army was helping the Mukti Bahini through Operation Jackpot since May 1971, while the Indian navy had helped set up the Bengali Naval commando unit and had provided command staff for the Bengali gunboats which were busy mining riverine crafts and harassing merchant marine operations in East Pakistan. The IAF could not come to grips with the PAF until formal hostilities commenced, but the Bengali airmen joined the act when 9 Bengali pilots and 50 technicians, formerly of the PAF and serving with the Mukti Bahini in various capacity were gathered for a special mission on 28 September 1971 at Dimapur in Nagaland. A number of Bengali civilian pilots from the PIA later joined this group. Indian civilian authorities and the IAF donated 1 DC-3 Dakota (gifted by the Maharaja of Jodhpor), 1 Twin Otter plane and 1 Alouette III helicopter for the new born Bangladesh Air Force, which was to take advantage of the lack of night fighting capability of the PAF to launch hit and run attacks on sensitive targets inside Bangladesh from the air. The Bengali rank and file fixed up the WWII vintage runway at Dimapur, then added began rigging the aircraft for combat duty. The Dakota was modified to carry 5000 lb (unknown operator: u'strong' kg) bombs, but for technical reasons it was used to ferry Bangladesh government



Location of IAF, PAF and BAF units on December 1971 in and around Bangladesh. Some unit locations are not shown. Map not to exact scale

personnel, Captain Abdul Khalek, Captain Alamgir Satter and Captain Abdul Mukit, all destined to earn the *Bir Pratik* award, piloted the Dakota. The Helicopter was rigged to fire 14 rockets from pylons attached to its side and had .303 Browning machine guns attached to it, in addition to having 1-inch (**unknown operator: u'strong'** mm) steel plate welded to its floor for extra protection. Squadron Leader Sultan Mahmood, Flight Lieutenant Bodiul Alam and Captain Shahabuddin, all of whom later won the *Bir Uttam* award, operated the helicopter. The Otter boasted 7 rockets under each of its wings and could launch ten 25 pound bombs. The bombs were rolled out by hand through a makeshift door. Flight Lt. Shamsul Alam, along with Captains Akram Ahmed and Sharfuddin Ahmad flew the Otter, all three were later awarded *Bir Uttam* for their service in 1971. This tiny force was dubbed *Kilo Flight*, the first fighting formation of Bangladesh Air force.

Under the command of Group Captain A.K. Khandkar and Squadron Leader Sultan Mahmood, intense training took place in night flying and instrumental navigation. After 2 months of training, the formation was activated for combat. The first sortie was scheduled to take place on November 28, but was moved back 6 days to December 2, 1971. The Otter (Flown by Flight Lt. Shamsul Alam, co pilot FL Akram) was moved to Kailashsahar, and was prepared for a mission against targets in Chittagong. The Helicopter (Pilot Flight Lt. Sultan Mahmood and Fl. Lt. Bodiul Alam) was to hit Narayangang, flying from Teliamura, near Agartola.

In the early hours of December 3, 1971, the twin otter and the helicopter took off from their respective bases and hit the oil depots at Naryanganj and Chittagong, which the Mukti Bahini guerrillas had been unable to sabotage due to the tight security. In Ironically, the PAF initiated Operation Chengis Khan on the same night, and the IAF commenced offensive operations in the East from December 3, 1971. Kilo flight would in total fly 12 missions in 1971, hitting various targets in Chittagong, Naryanganj and Bhairab. The formation base was moved from Dimapur to Shamshernagar after it was liberated on December 4, then finally was moved to Agartala before the end of the war. The BAF contingent was present in Dhaka when the surrender ceremony took place on December 16, 1971.

IAF commences Operations: December 3, 1971

Following the preemptive strike by the PAF on its airfields in the western sector, the IAF went into action on the midnight of 3 December 1971. However, the western air campaign was, at least in the initial days, limited to striking PAF forward bases and providing ground support, but was not aimed at achieving air supremacy. In the east, however, faced with only the No. 14 Squadron defending the whole sector, the Eastern Air Command was given the task to achieve total air dominance, which ultimately it did.

On 3 December Pakistan launched what was intended to be a decisive pre-emptive strike against Indian airfields, but managed only 50 sorties. The IAF hit back with retaliatory strikes.

The PAF's handful of Sabres at Tezgaon near Dacca in East Pakistan put up a useful resistance against all out attacks by Indian fighers from 4 December. Between 4 and 11 of the attackers were claimed shot down in air combat, with 17 more lost to ground fire. Five Sabres were shot down in air combat. On 6 December, an IAF attack cratered the runways at both Tezgaon and Kurmitola, effectively putting them out of action for the rest of the campaign. Apart from the IAF squadrons deployed in the East Bengal, India's sole aircraft-carrier INS Vikrant (with its Sea Hawk fighter bombers and Breguet Alize ASW aircraft) mounted attacks against the civil airport at Cox's bazaar and Chittagong harbor. The embryo Bangladesh air force, with three DHC Otters (fitted with machine guns) of Mukti Bahini Air Wing made an appearance on 7 December. Indian airborne troops, in battalion strength, made an assault on Dacca on 11 December usnig An-12s, and Fairchild C-119Gs. This was preceded on 7 December by a heliborne infantry assault by two companies, in some nine Mil Mi-4s and Mi-8s, escorted by 'gunship' Alouttes. [17]

3-4 December

Canberra bombers struck Tejgaon repeatedly on the night of 3 December. The PAF No. 14 operated only Sabres which lacked night fighting capability, so the bombers were opposed only by the guns of the Pakistani light ack-ack regiment. By the morning of 4 December, however, strike missions against Tejgaon were assigned to Hunters of the No. 7, No. 14 sqn, No. 17 sqn and No.37 sqn, Su-7s (No. 221 Sqn) and MiG-21s (No. 28 sqn).

The first daytime raids in East Pakistan were flown by Hunters of No.17 Sqn and these were given top cover by four MiG-21s from No.28 Sqn. It proved unnecessary, the Hunters shot down one Sabre when intercepted before the rendezvous took place. No. 14 sqn also struck Kurmitola AFB, hitting the Hangars and Installations with rockets. By the afternoon, Hunter's would strike Narayangunj fuel depots. Hunters from No. 14 Sqn also struck Chittagong Harbour on the morning of 4 December. In an afternoon strike on Tejgaon by MiGs from 28 Sqn, a Twin otter was destroyed on the ground.

For the interceptors sent up to challenge the strikes, PAF was to suffer the loss of three Sabres in dog fights over Dhaka, two to Hunters striking Kumitola. Of these, Wg Cdr S M Ahmed and Flt. Lt. Saeed ejected safely over the village of Ghazipur, but were not found by search parties and were listed as "missing" for the duration of the war. Later reports would suggest that both pilots were killed by hostile local populace.

Though not programmed or required to fly, Ahmad had insisted — in keeping with the PAF's tradition of its seniors leading in combat — and was soon in the thick of battle with 4 Hunters, joined minutes later by some MiG-21s and Su-7s. In the melee, the Hunters' leader shot down Ahmad's F-86, forcing him to eject 5 miles from Kurmitola; despite an air and ground search he was never found. Rashidi, in the meanwhile, successfully extricated himself from the 'one-versus-several' situation just as another pair of PAF F-86s, comprising Sdn. Ldr. Afzaal and Flt. Lt. Saeed, was engaging 3 Hunters, a few miles away. Both Afzaal and Saeed were immediately set upon by another Hunter and was himself shot down. Only minutes later Afzaal had avenged this loss by chasing a MiG-21 and shooting it down. Although Saeed had ejected safely, he too was never found; reportedly both Saeed and Ahmad were taken away by Mukti supporters.

The last of the Sabres lost that day was to an afternoon strike on Narayangunj, Fg Off Sajjad Noor was shot down while attempting to engage a strike by Hunters from No. 14Sqn. Noor ejected safely over the village of Zinjira and was later rescued.

The IAF also suffered some of its heaviest losses on these missions, losing six Hunters and one Su-7. No. 7 sqn, on a strike mission against an ammunition train at Lal Munir Hat, would suffer one Pilot- Flt Lt A R Da Costa KIA, along with the loss of two Hunters- both hit by fierce ground fire and crashing in Indian territory. One of the pilots of the stricken planes, Sqn Ldr S K Gupta safely ejected at Bagdogra. No. 14 Sqn also lost two Hunters on the day to ack ack. Both the pilots, Sqn Ldr K D Mehra and Flt Lt K C Tremenhere, ejected safely. Tremenhere was taken POW while Mehra managed to evade capture and get back to Indian territory. The highest price of the day was however, paid by No. 37 Sqn, which suffered the death of two pilots- Sqn Ldr S B Samanta and Fg Off S G Khonde. Sqn Ldr S Romanta taken POW.

IAF Canberra planes had also struck Chittagong airport, oil tanks and refinery on December 4, and lost 2 planes but managed to damage the installations. In total the PAF had flown 32 operational sorties against IAF incursions on December 4 and had expanded 30,000 rounds of ammunition, while the ground based weapons had fired 70,000 rounds, the highest expenditure per day per aircraft of ammunition in the history of the PAF. Pakistani authorities claimed between 10 to 12 IAF planes destroyed, and took measures to conserve ammunition in anticipation of a long war.

5–7 December

People of Dhaka witnessed thrilling low-level dogfights throughout 4 and 5 December. The IAF concentrated in attacking the aircraft on the ground. However, for the dear price paid, it failed to cause significant damage to the PAF assets in well-dispersed and camouflaged locations. IAF also flew ground support missions, and the lessening pressure meant that the PAF managed to fly some ground support missions over Comilla and other areas. In total 20 operational sorties were flown by the Sabres, and 12,000 rounds of ammunition were used up during December 5 by the PAF. By the evening of 5 December the IAF realised that a change of tactic was necessary. The Ack-Ack regiment managed to defend the airbase during 5 December and the night of the early hours of the 6th against Indian attacks successfully.

On the morning of 6 December four MiG-21s (No. 28 Sqn), flying from Gauhati at very low level, climbed up to 5,000 m and dived at 900 km/h, hitting Tejgaon airstrip with 500 kg bombs, scoring several hits on the runway, and rendering it unusable for operations. The airport was without air cover at that time, as a PAF ground support mission had just landed and the duty flight had not taken off. Two craters, ten meters deep and twenty meters wide, separated by 1200 meters had rendered the runway unusable (the bombs were BETAB-500, anti-airstrip ordnance). However, Kurmitola was to remain operational till the morning of 7 December, when Mig-21s of No. 28 Sqn again hit that runway. No. 7 Sqn was pulled out of the eastern ops on the 6 December to help the army in the west. Repeated attack by MiG-21s and Hunters of No. 14 and No.28 however, kept the runway cratered. An aviation website noted: "A notable fact remains that the MiG-21FL was neither as easy to fly nor to operate in combat under conditions the IAF had to expect in the case of a new war with Pakistan. It was designed as simple point-defence fighter-interceptor that was to operate under close GCI-control and attack its targets from the rear hemisphere with R-3S (ASCC-Code AA-2 Atoll) heat-seeking missiles. However, pleased with the speed and handling of the MiGs during operational conversions, Indian pilots trained intensively and gained not only considerable confidence, but also expertise. The Indians were to use it as an air superiority fighter as well as fighter bomber over extended ranges and well inside the enemy airspace, with minimal or no GCI-support at all." [21]

Effectively, MiG-21 had success as interdiction-strike aircraft, taking-out an important air base with only eight sorties. The results of the IAF's assault was that by 7 December, the PAF in the East was effectively grounded. The IAF also bombed other airfields including the abandoned WWII airfields of Comilla, Lal Munir Hat and Shamsher Nagar throughout the war, denying their use to PAF planes that may be moved by road, as well as to any external aerial reinforcement. Jessore Airfield had come under Mitro Bahini control by this time, so it was spared. Pakistani authorities made repeated attempts to repair the runways. Airforce and army engineers, helped by civilian workers, worked round the clock during Dec 6-7, and by 4:50 AM Dec 7, only 8 hours of respite was needed to regain fully operational status at Tejgaon, However, the IAF hit the base on the 7th, and it was estimated 36 hours of work without further damage was needed to make the base operational again. The IAF ensured no such respite took place. In desperation, it was suggested that the broad streets at second capital be used as runways, but technical problems ruled out that possibility—grounding the PAF Sabres forever in East Pakistan.

PAF fighter pilots were sent to West Pakistan via Burma on 8 December and 9 December when it became clear at least 36 hours of uninterrupted work was needed to fix the runways and the ack-ack units were unable to keep the IAF away. Pakistani authorities claimed that between 4–15 December the IAF had lost 22 to 24 aircraft, 7 to the PAF and the rest to ack-ack units. The IAF records 19 aircraft lost in East Pakistan, 3 in air combat, 6 to accidents and the rest to ack-ack while 5 Sabres were shot down by IAF planes. After the liberation of Dhaka, 13 airframes were found at the Tejgaon airport by the Mitro Bahini in various states of sabotage. T-33 trainers were inoperable, but 8 Sabres were made operational later. 5 of them were incorporated in the Bangladesh Air Force in 1972. The Pakistan HQ had issued orders to blow up the aircraft, but Air Commodore Enam had pointed out that the sight of burning planes would demoralize the Pakistani troops defending Dacca. PAF personnel destroyed the ammunition stocks and sabotaged the electric and hydraulic systems of the aircraft on 15 December.

The PAF continued to use helicopters at night to fly reinforcements to remote bases and airlift munitions. Prior to the surrender of Pakistan Eastern Command on 16 December the Army Aviation squadron, commanded by Lt. Col. Liaquat Bokhari, escaped to Burma with selected personnel, including Maj. Gen. Rahim Khan (GOC 39th Ad Hoc division). [25]

Operations in Support of Ground Forces

With the PAF in the east effectively neutralised, the IAF could now concentrate in supporting their advancing army. Movements of Pakistani troops during day time came to a virtual halt due to relentless IAF air attack. Ferries across major river crossings were sunk by the IAF thus denying the Pak army its line of retreat to Dhaka. On 7 December, INS Vikrant, the navy's sole aircraft carrier at the time, joined the operation. Sea Hawks operating from the deck of *Vikrant* struck Chittagong harbour, Cox's Bazar and Barisal. Whatever remained of the Pakistani Navy was destroyed or sunk. The airfields in Cox's Bazar, Chiringa and Feni were made inoperative.

On 10 December IAF helilifted troops of the IV Corps from Ashuganj to Raipura and Narsingi in what came to be termed the **Operation Cactus-Lilly** (also known as the *Helibridge over Meghna*). Entire Brigade strengths were lifted over the River Meghna, allowing the Indian Army to continue their advance in spite of stiff resistance at Ashuganj, where the retreating Pakistani Army also blew up the Bridge.

To the south of this area near Chandpur, the 39 division (CO: General Rahim Khan) HQ at had requested evacuation by river on December 8. Under the escort of a gunboat, the flotilla, made up of local launches sailed in the early hours of December 10. The IAF spotted and bombed the ships, which were either sunk or beached themselves and failed to reach Dhaka. ^[26] The survivors later were evacuated by ships operating at night and by helicopters.

On 11 December, India airdropped Para Bn Gp 130 in the now famous Tangail airdrop. The operation involved An-12, C-119s, 2 Caribous and Dakotas from 11 sqn and 48 Sn. In total, about 1000 troops were airdropped. The only hitch was one paratrooper who a static line hangup. Gnats from No. 22 sqn provided top cover for the operation, which ultimately went unhindered. Also on the 11th of December three converted An-12s from the No.44 Squadron struck the Jaydebpur Ordnance factory in East Pakistan.

On the morning of 14 December, a message was intercepted by Indian Intelligence of a high-level meeting of the civilian administration in East Pakistan and a decision was made to mount an attack. Within 15 minutes interception of the message, a strike was launched against Dhaka. Armed with tourist guide maps of the city, four Mig 21s of No. 28 Sqn got Airborne. A few minutes had passed after the meeting had started, when the IAF MIG's came screaming & blasted the Governors House with 57 mm rockets in the first, thereby ripping the massive roof of the main hall and turning the building into a smouldering wreck. The Governor of East Pakistan, Mr. A H Malik, was so shocked with the incident that he resigned on the spot by writing on a piece of paper and thereby renouncing all ties with the West Pakistani administration, to take refuge at the Red Cross Center in Dhaka.

Fate of Pakistan Navy in East Pakistan

Pakistan Forces GHQ had declined a substantial naval contingent for the defense of East Pakistan for two reasons: they had inadequate ships to challenge the Indian navy on both fronts and the PAF in the east was not deemed strong enough to protect the ships from Indian airpower (The IAF and Indian Navy air arm). The fate of Pakistani naval vessels in December was ample proof of the soundness of this decision and the repercussion of neglecting East Pakistan defense infrastructure (the reason PAF could only station 1 squadron of planes there). Pakistan Eastern Command had planned to fight the war without the navy and faced with a hopeless task against overwhelming odds, the navy planned to remain in the ports when war broke out. [27]

The Pakistan Navy had 4 Gunboats (PNS *Jessore*, *Rajshahi*, *Comilla*, and *Sylhet*), all 345 ton vessels capable of attaining a maximum speed of 20 knots (**unknown operator: u'strong'** km/h), were crewed by 29 sailors and fitted with 40/60 mm cannons and machine guns in East Pakistan. 1 patrol boat ("Balaghat") and 17 armed boats (armed

with 12.7mm/20mm guns and/or .50 or .303 Browning machine guns) in addition to various civilian owned Pakistan forces requisitioned and jury rigged boats armed with various weapons were also part of the Pakistan naval contingent. The improvised armed boats were adequate for patrolling and anti-insurgency ops but hopelessly out of place in conventional warfare. Before the start of hostilities in December PNS *Jessore* was in Khulna with 4 other boats, PNS *Rajshahi*, *Comilla* and *Balaghat* was at Chittagong. PNS *Sylhet* was undergoing repairs at a dry-dock near Dhaka. The outbreak of hostilities on December 3 found most of the boats scattered around the province. [29]

Indian aircraft attacked the *Rajshahi* and *Comilla* near Chittagong on the 4 December, the *Rajshahi* was damaged and the *Comilla* sunk.^[30] The *Balaghat*, which was not attacked, rescued the Comilla crew and the surviving ships returned to Chittagong. On December 5, Indian planes sank two patrol boats in Khulna. The PNS *Sylhet* was destroyed on December 6 and the *Balaghat* on December 9 by Indian aircraft. PNS *Jessore*, which had withdrawn from Khulna to Dacca, was destroyed on December 11 while escorting boats evacuating Pakistani troops from Chandpur. PNS *Rajshahi* was repaired, and under the command of Lt. Commander Shikder Hayat managed to evade the Indian blockade and reach Malaysia before the surrender on December 16. From there it sailed to Karachi and continued to serve in the Pakistan navy.

Blue on Blue: Tragedy near Khulna

Indian Army Eastern Command had ordered Bangladesh Navy gunboats BNS *Palash* and BNS *Padma*, accompanied by INS *Panvel* under the overall command of Commander M.N Samant, to sail to Chalna port. These ships, carrying Bengali seamen and Indian command crew, had been operating against Pakistani shipping since November, and under the advise of Indian Eastern Air command, had painted their superstructure yellow to avoid misidentification, which had been reported back to Eastern air-command. This task force sailed on December 6, entered Mangla at 7:30 Am on December 10 and took over the port facility. Commander Samant knew that Khulna was a IAF target but decided to push on anyway. Around 11:30 AM, when the 3 ships were closing in on Khulna dockyard, 3 airplanes dived on them. Commander Samant recognized the IAF planes and ordered the ships to hold fire; all 3 ships were strafed and sunk by the planes. 3 Bengali Naval commandos and 7 Bengali sailors were killed, 6 naval commandos, 1 BSF JCO, 3 Indian officers and 7 Bengali seamen were injured. Indian Navy gave 14 awards (including 3 Mahavir Chakras, and 6 Vir Chakras) to the Indian rank and file involved in this incident. Bengali Seaman Ruhul Amin, who tried to save MV Palash despite being wounded and ordered to abandon ship, and later had died under torture, was awarded 'Bir Shershtra' by Bangladesh government. 21 Indian and Bengali sailors became POWs.

The IAF was to continue flying interdiction missions for the remainder of the war in, shooting up ammunition dumps and other fixed installations. Gnats and Sukhoi Su-7s flew many missions in support of army units as they moved swiftly towards Dhaka, delivering ordnance such as iron bombs to take out enemy bunkers which occasionally posed an obstacle to advancing infantry. Canberras repeatedly struck Jessore forcing the enemy to abandon this strategic city. The IAF also was prepared to hit any Chinese incursions into Indian territory in the eastern Himalayas. As it turned out, the Chinese did not stir.

Notes

- [1] http://www.bharat-rakshak.com/IAF/History/1965War/Appendix2.html
- [2] Islam, Rafiqul, A Tale of Millions, p315
- [3] Salik, Siddiq, "Witness to Surrender" p87, p90
- [4] Qureshi, Maj. Gen. Hakeem A., The 1971 Indo-Pak War: A Soldiers Narrative p55, p58
- [5] Ali Khan, Maj. Gen. Rao Farman, When Pakistan Got Divided, p88
- [6] Salik, Siddiq, "Witness to Surrender" p82
- [7] Islam, Rafiqul, "A Tale of Millions", p122, p213
- [8] Salik, Siddiq, "Witness to Surrender" p132
- [9] Salik, Siddiq, "Witness to Surrender" p123
- [10] Salik, Siddiq, Witness to Surrender, p132
- [11] Jacob, Lt. Gen. JFR, Surrender at Dacca, pp188
- [12] Jacob, Lt. Gen. JFR, "Surrender At Dacca: Birth of A Nation" p51
- [13] http://www.acig.org/artman/publish/article_326.shtml
- [14] Uddin, Major Nasir, Juddhey Juddhey Swadhinata, ISBN 984-401-455-7, pp247
- [15] Salik, Siddiq, Witness to Surrender light aircraft- p134
- [16] Islam, Rafiqul, A Tale of Millions, p122, p213
- [17] The Encyclopedia of 20th Century Air Warfare Edited by Chris Bishop (amber publishing 1997, republished 2004 pages 384-387 ISBN 1-904687-26-1)
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- [23] (http://www.bharat-rakshak.com/IAF/History/Misc/Loss1971.html) IAF Losses in the East
- [24] http://www.bharat-rakshak.com/IAF/History/1971War/Appendix3.html
- [25] Salik, Siddiq, Witness To Surrender, p209
- [26] Salik, Siddiq, Witness To Surrender p175-p176
- [27] Salik, Siddiq, Witness to Surrender, p135
- [28] Salik, Siddiq, Witness To Surrender, p133
- [29] Salik, Siddiq, Witness To Surrender, p134
- [30] Salik, Siddiq, Witness To Surrender, p135
- [31] Jacob, Lt. Gen. JFR, Surrender at Dacca, p92

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Surrender

Instrument of Surrender (1971)

The **Instrument of Surrender** was signed at Ramna Race Course in Dhaka at one past five in the evening (1701 hrs), local time, on December 16, 1971, by Lieutenant General Jagjit Singh Aurora, General Officer Commanding in Chief of Eastern Command of the Indian Army and Lieutenant General Amir Abdullah Khan Niazi, Commander of Pakistani forces in Bangladesh, as the formal act of surrender of all Pakistani forces in erstwhile East Pakistan. Also present during the ceremony were Lieutenant General JFR Jacob, Chief of Staff of the Eastern Command and architect of the plan for the capture of Bangladesh, and, the commanders of Indian Naval and Air Forces in the Eastern Theatre.

The signing of the document ended the Indo-Pakistani War of 1971, and led to the formation of Bangladesh. The name of the new country, Bangla Desh (later reduced to a single word), was used in the instrument of surrender, which declared: "The Pakistan Eastern Command agree to surrender all Pakistan armed forces in Bangla desh to Lieutenant-General Jagjit Singh Aurora, General Officer Commanding in Chief of the Indian and BANGLA DESH forces in the Eastern Theatre."

Aurora accepted the surrender without a word, while the crowd on the race course started shouting anti-Niazi and anti-Pakistan slogans and abuses. [1] Niazi along with a sizeable number of Pakistani soldiers were taken prisoner (upwards of 90,000). This was the largest number of POWs since World War II and included some government officials.

Text of the Instrument

"The PAKISTAN Eastern Command agree to surrender all PAKISTAN Armed Forces in BANGLA DESH to Lieutenant-General JAGJIT SINGH AURORA, General Officer Commanding in Chief of the Indian and BANGLA DESH forces in the Eastern Theatre. This surrender includes all PAKISTAN land, air and naval forces as also all para-military forces and civil armed forces. These forces will lay down their arms and surrender at the places where they are currently located to the nearest regular troops under the command of Lieutenant-General JAGJIT SINGH AURORA.

The PAKISTAN Eastern Command shall come under the orders of Lieutenant-General JAGJIT SINGH AURORA as soon as the instrument has been signed. Disobedience of orders will be regarded as a breach of the surrender terms and will be dealt with in accordance with the accepted laws and usages of war. The decision of Lieutenant-General JAGJIT SINGH AURORA will be final, should any doubt arise as to the meaning or interpretation of the surrender terms.

Lieutenant-General JAGJIT SINGH AURORA gives a solemn assurance that personnel who surrender shall be treated with dignity and respect that soldiers are entitled to in accordance with provisions of the GENEVA Convention and guarantees the safety and well-being of all PAKISTAN military and para-military forces who surrender. Protection will be provided to foreign nationals, ethnic minorities and personnel of WEST PAKISTAN origin by the forces under the command of Lieutenant- General JAGJIT SINGH AURORA."

Signed by J.S. Aurora and A.A.K. Niazi on 16 December 1971.

This document can be seen on display in the National Museum in Delhi (as of January 2012)

In Literature

In Salman Rushdie's novel Midnight's Children, the encounter between the two generals is shown in the chapter *Sam* and the Tiger

Sources

INSTRUMENTS OF SURRENDER OF PAKISTANI FORCES IN DACCA ^[2] Hosted by Ministry of External Affairs, India Virtual Bangladesh ^[3]

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Indo-Pakistani War of 1999

Kargil War

The **Kargil War** (Hindi: কামোলি যুব্ধ *kārgil yuddh*, Urdu: کارگل جنگ *kārgil jang*), also known as the **Kargil conflict**, ^[note (I)] was an armed conflict between India and Pakistan that took place between May and July 1999 in the Kargil district of Kashmir and elsewhere along the Line of Control (LOC). The conflict is also referred to as **Operation Vijay** (Victory in Hindi) which was the name of the Indian operation to clear the Kargil sector. ^[1]

The cause of the war was the infiltration of Pakistani soldiers and Kashmiri militants into positions on the Indian side of the LOC, which serves as the *de facto* border between the two states. During the initial stages of the war, Pakistan blamed the fighting entirely on independent Kashmiri insurgents, but documents left behind by casualties and later statements by Pakistan's Prime Minister and Chief of Army Staff showed involvement of Pakistani paramilitary forces, [3][4][5] led by General Ashraf Rashid. [6] The Indian Army, later on supported by the Indian Air Force, recaptured a majority of the positions on the Indian side of the LOC infiltrated by the Pakistani troops and militants. With international diplomatic opposition, the Pakistani forces withdrew from the remaining Indian positions along the LOC.

The war is one of the most recent examples of high altitude warfare in mountainous terrain, which posed significant logistical problems for the combating sides. This was only the second direct ground war between any two countries after they had developed nuclear weapons; it is also the most recent. (India and Pakistan both test-detonated fission devices in May 1998, though the first Indian nuclear test was conducted in 1974.)

Location

Before the Partition of India in 1947, Kargil was part of the Baltistan district of Ladakh, a sparsely populated region with diverse linguistic, ethnic and religious groups, living in isolated valleys separated by some of the world's highest mountains. The First Kashmir War (1947–48) concluded with the LOC bisecting the Baltistan district, with the town and district of Kargil lying on the Indian side in the Ladakh subdivision of the Indian state of Jammu and Kashmir. ^[7] After Pakistan's defeat in the Indo-Pakistani War of 1971, the two nations signed the Simla Agreement promising not to engage in armed conflict with respect to that boundary. ^[8]

The town of Kargil is located 205 km (**unknown operator: u'strong'** mi) from Srinagar, ^[9] facing the Northern Areas across the LOC. Like other areas in the Himalayas, Kargil has a temperate climate. Summers are cool with frigid nights, while winters are long and chilly with temperatures often dropping to -48 °C (-54 °F). ^[10]

An Indian national highway (NH 1D) connecting Srinagar to Leh cuts through Kargil. The area that witnessed the infiltration and fighting is a 160 km long stretch of ridges overlooking this only road linking Srinagar and Leh. The military outposts on the ridges above the highway were generally around 5,000 metres (16,000 ft) high, with a few as high as 5,485 metres (18,000 ft). Apart from the district capital, Kargil, the populated areas near the front line in the conflict



included the Mushko Valley and the town of Drass, southwest of Kargil, as well as the Batalik sector and other areas, northeast of Kargil.

One of the reasons why Kargil was targeted was that the terrain surrounding it, lent itself to pre-emptive seizure of unoccupied military positions. [12] With tactically vital features and well-prepared defensive posts atop the peaks, a defender of the high ground would enjoy advantages akin to a fortress. Any attack to dislodge a defender from high ground in mountain warfare requires a far higher ratio of attackers to defenders, [13] and the difficulties would be exacerbated by the high altitude and freezing temperatures. [14]

Kargil is just 173 km (**unknown operator: u'strong'** mi) from the Pakistani-controlled town of Skardu, which was capable of providing logistical and artillery support to Pakistani combatants.

Background

After the Indo-Pakistani War of 1971, there had been a long period with relatively few direct armed conflicts involving the military forces of the two neighbors - notwithstanding the efforts of both nations to control the Siachen Glacier by establishing military outposts on the surrounding mountains ridges and the resulting military skirmishes in the 1980s. During the 1990s, however, escalating tensions and conflict due to separatist activities in Kashmir, some of which were supported by Pakistan, as well as the conducting of nuclear tests by both countries in 1998, led to an increasingly belligerent atmosphere. In an attempt to defuse the situation, both countries signed the Lahore Declaration in February 1999, promising to provide a peaceful and bilateral solution to the Kashmir conflict.



The town of Kargil is strategically located.

During the winter of 1998 -1999, some elements of the Pakistani Armed Forces were covertly training and sending Pakistani troops and paramilitary forces, some allegedly in the guise of mujahideen, into territory on the Indian side of the LOC. The infiltration was code named "Operation Badr"; [16] its aim was to sever the link between Kashmir and Ladakh, and cause Indian forces to withdraw from the Siachen Glacier, thus forcing India to negotiate a settlement of the broader Kashmir dispute. Pakistan also believed that any tension in the region would internationalise the Kashmir issue, helping it to secure a speedy resolution. Yet another goal may have been to boost the morale of the decade-long rebellion in Indian Administered Kashmir by taking a proactive role. Some writers have speculated that the operation's objective may also have been as a retaliation for India's Operation Meghdoot in 1984 that seized much of Siachen Glacier. [17]

According to India's then army chief Ved Prakash Malik, and many other scholars, [18][19] much of the background planning, including construction of logistical supply routes, had been undertaken much earlier. On several occasions during the 1980s and 1990s, the army had given Pakistani leaders (Zia ul Haq and Benazir Bhutto) similar proposals for infiltration into the Kargil region, but the plans had been shelved for fear of drawing the nations into all-out war. [20][21][22]

Some analysts believe that the blueprint of attack was reactivated soon after Pervez Musharraf was appointed chief of army staff in October 1998. [16][23] After the war, Nawaz Sharif, Prime Minister of Pakistan during the Kargil conflict, claimed that he was unaware of the plans, and that he first learned about the situation when he received an urgent phone call from Atal Bihari Vajpayee, his counterpart in India. [24] Sharif attributed the plan to Musharraf and "just two or three of his cronies", [25] a view shared by some Pakistani writers who have stated that only four generals, including Musharraf, knew of the plan. [20][26] Musharraf, however, asserted that Sharif had been briefed on the Kargil operation 15 days ahead of Vajpayee's journey to Lahore on February 20. [27]

War progress

Further information: Kargil order of battle

Conflict Events

DATE	HISTORICAL EVENT
May 3, 1999	Pakistani intrusion in Kargil reported by local shepherds
May 5	Indian Army patrol sent up; Five Indian soldiers captured and tortured to death.
May 9	Heavy shelling by Pakistan Army damages ammunition dump in Kargil
May 10	Infiltrations first noticed in Dras, Kaksar and Mushkoh sectors
Mid-May	Indian Army moves in more troops from Kashmir Valley to Kargil Sector
May 26	IAF launches air strikes against infiltrators
May 27	IAF loses two fighters — MiG-21 and MiG-27;. Flt Lt Nachiketa taken POW
May 28	IAF MI-17 shot down by Pakistan; four air crew dead
June 1	Pakistan steps up attacks; bombs NH 1A
June 5	Indian Army releases documents recovered from three Pakistani soldiers indicating Pakistan's involvement
June 6	Indian Army launches major offensive in Kargil
June 9	Indian Army re-captures two key positions in the Batalic sector
June 11	India releases intercepts of conversation between Pakistani Army Chief Gen Pervez Musharraf, while on a visit to China and Chief of General Staff Lt Gen Aziz Khan in Rawalpindi, as proof of Pakistani Army's involvement
June 13	Indian Army secures Tololing in Dras
June 15	US President Bill Clinton, in a telephonic conversation, asks Pakistani Prime Minister Nawaz Sharif to pull out from Kargil
June 29	Indian Army captures two vital posts — Point 5060 and Point 5100 near Tiger Hill
July 2	Indian Army launches three-pronged attack in Kargil
July 4	Indian Army recaptures Tiger Hill after an 11-hour battle
July 5	Indian Army takes control of Dras. Sharif announces Pakistani army's withdrawal from Kargil following his meeting with Clinton
July 7	India recaptures Jubar Heights in Batalik
July 11	Pakistan begins pullout; India captures key peaks in Batalik
July 14	Indian Prime Minister Atal Behari Vajpayee declares Operation Vijay a success. Government sets condition for talks with Pakistan
July 26	Kargil conflict officially comes to an end. Indian Army announces complete eviction of Pak intruders

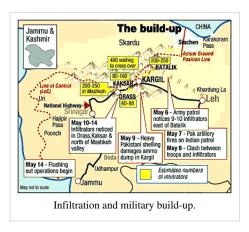
[28][29][30]

There were three major phases to the Kargil War. First, Pakistan infiltrated forces into the Indian-controlled section of Kashmir and occupied strategic locations enabling it to bring NH1 within range of its artillery fire. The next stage consisted of India discovering the infiltration and mobilizing forces to respond to it. The final stage involved major battles by Indian and Pakistani forces resulting in India recapturing some territory held by Pakistani forces and the subsequent withdrawal of Pakistani forces back across the Line of Control after international pressure.

Occupation by Pakistan

During the winter season, due to extreme cold in the snow-capped mountainous areas of Kashmir, it was a common practice for both the Indian and Pakistan Armies to abandon some forward posts on their respective sides of the LOC and to reduce patrolling of areas that may be avenues of infiltration. When weather conditions became less severe, forward posts would be reoccupied and patrolling resumed.

During February 1999, the Pakistan Army began to re-occupy the posts it had abandoned on its side of the LOC in the Kargil region, but also sent forces to occupy some posts on the Indian side of the LOC.^[31] Troops from the elite Special Services Group as well as four to seven battalions^{[32][33]} of the Northern Light Infantry (a paramilitary



regiment not part of the regular Pakistani army at that time) covertly and overtly set up bases on the vantage points of the Indian-controlled region. According to some reports, these Pakistani forces were backed by Kashmiri guerrillas and Afghan mercenaries.^[34]

Pakistani intrusions took place in the heights of the lower Mushkoh Valley, along the Marpo La ridgeline in Dras, in Kaksar near Kargil, in the Batalik sector east of the Indus River, on the heights above of the Chorbatla sector where the LOC turns North and in the Turtok sector south of the Siachen area.

India discovers infiltration and mobilizes

Initially, these incursions were not detected for a number of reasons: Indian patrols were not sent into some of the areas infiltrated by the Pakistani forces and heavy artillery fire by Pakistan in some areas provided cover for the infiltrators. But by the second week of May, the ambushing of an Indian patrol team led by Capt Saurabh Kalia, who acted on a tip-off by a local shepherd in the Batalik sector, led to the exposure of the infiltration. Initially, with little knowledge of the nature or extent of the infiltration, the Indian troops in the area assumed that the infiltrators were jihadis and claimed that they would evict them within a few days. Subsequent discovery of infiltration elsewhere along the LOC, and the difference in tactics employed by the infiltrators, caused the Indian army to realize that the plan of attack was on a much bigger scale. The total area seized by the ingress is generally accepted to between 130 km² - 200 km²; [26][32][36]

The Government of India responded with Operation Vijay, a mobilisation of 200,000 Indian troops. However, because of the nature of the terrain, division and corps operations could not be mounted; subsequent fighting was conducted mostly at the regimental or battalion level. In effect, two divisions of the Indian Army, ^[37] numbering 20,000, plus several thousand from the Paramilitary forces of India and the air force were deployed in the conflict zone. The total number of Indian soldiers that were involved in the military operation on the Kargil-Drass sector was thus close to 30,000. The number of infiltrators, including those providing logistical backup, has been put at approximately 5,000 at the height of the conflict. ^{[2][26][34]} This figure includes troops from Pakistan-administered Kashmir who provided additional artillery support.

The Indian Air Force launched Operation Safed Sagar in support of the mobilization of Indian land forces, but its effectiveness during the war was limited by the high altitude and weather conditions, which in turn limited bomb loads and the number of airstrips that could be used.

The Indian Navy also prepared to blockade the Pakistani ports (primarily Karachi port)^[38] to cut off supply routes.^[39] Later, the then-Prime Minister of Pakistan Nawaz Sharif disclosed that Pakistan was left with just six days of fuel to sustain itself if a full-fledged war had broken out.^[2]

India attacks Pakistani positions

The terrain of Kashmir is mountainous and at high altitudes; even the best roads, such as National Highway 1D from Leh to Srinagar, are only two lanes. The rough terrain and narrow roads slowed traffic, and the high altitude, which affected the ability of aircraft to carry loads, made control of NH 1D (the actual stretch of the highway which was under Pakistani fire) a priority for India. From their observation posts, the Pakistani forces had a clear line-of-sight to lay down indirect artillery fire on NH 1D, inflicting heavy casualties on the Indians. [40] This was a serious problem for the Indian Army as the highway was its main logistical and supply route. [41] The Pakistani shelling of the arterial road posed the threat of Leh being cut off, though an alternative (and longer) road to Leh existed via Himachal Pradesh.

The infiltrators, apart from being equipped with small arms and grenade launchers, were also armed with mortars, artillery and anti-aircraft guns. Many posts were also heavily mined, with India later stating to having recovered more than 8,000 anti-personnel mines according to an ICBL report. Pakistan's reconnaissance was done through unmanned aerial vehicles and AN/TPQ-36 Firefinder radars supplied by the US. The initial Indian attacks were aimed at controlling the hills overlooking NH 1D, with high priority being given to the stretches of the highway near the town of Kargil. The majority of posts along the Line of Control were adjacent to the highway, and therefore the recapture of nearly every infiltrated post increased both the territorial gains and the security of the highway. The protection of this route and the recapture of the forward posts were thus *ongoing objectives* throughout the war.

The Indian Army's first priority was to recapture peaks that were in the immediate vicinity of NH 1D. This resulted in Indian troops first targeting the Tiger Hill and Tololing complex in Dras, which dominated the Srinagar-Leh route. [44] This was soon followed by the Batalik-Turtok sub-sector which provided access to Siachen Glacier. Some of the peaks that were of vital strategic importance to the Pakistani defensive troops were Point 4590 and Point 5353. While 4590 was the nearest point that had a view of NH 1D, point 5353 was the highest feature in the Dras sector, allowing the Pakistani troops to observe NH 1D. [45] The recapture of Point 4590 by Indian troops on June 14 was significant, notwithstanding the fact that it resulted in the Indian Army suffering the most casualties in a single battle during the conflict. [46] Though most of the posts in the vicinity of the highway were cleared by mid-June, some parts of the highway near Drass witnessed sporadic shelling until the end of the war.



IAF MiG-21s were used extensively in the Kargil

Once India regained control of the hills overlooking NH 1D, the Indian Army turned to driving the invading force back across the Line of Control. The Battle of Tololing, among other assaults, slowly tilted the combat in India's favor. The Pakistani troops at Tololing were aided by Pakistani fighters from Kashmir. Some of the posts put up a stiff resistance, including Tiger Hill (Point 5140) that fell only later in the war. Indian troops found well-entrenched Pakistani soldiers at Tiger Hill, and both sides suffered heavy casualties. After a final assault on the peak in which 10 Pakistani soldiers and 5 Indian soldiers were killed, Tiger Hill finally fell. A few of the assaults occurred atop hitherto unheard of peaks — most of them unnamed with only Point numbers to differentiate them — which witnessed fierce hand to hand

combat.

As the operation was fully underway, about 250 artillery guns were brought in to clear the infiltrators in the posts that were in the line-of-sight. The Bofors FH-77B field howitzer played a vital role, with Indian gunners making maximum use of the terrain that assisted such an attack. However, its success was limited elsewhere due to the lack of space and depth to deploy the Bofors gun.

It was in this type of terrain that aerial attacks were used with limited effectiveness. French made Mirage 2000H of the IAF were tasked to drop laser-guided bombs to destroy well-entrenched positions of the Pakistani forces.^[2] However, The IAF lost a MiG-27 strike aircraft which it attributed to an engine failure as well as a MiG-21 fighter

which was shot down by Pakistan; initially Pakistan said it shot down both jets after they crossed into its territory. [47] One Mi-8 helicopter was also lost, due to Stinger SAMs.

On May 27, 1999, Flt. Lt. Nachiketa developed engine trouble in the Batalik sector and bailed out of his craft. Sqn Ldr Ajay Ahuja went out of his way to locate his comrade but was shot down by a shoulder-fired Stinger missile. According to reports, he had bailed out of his stricken plane safely but was apparently killed by his captors as his body was returned riddled with bullet wounds. [2]

In many vital points, neither artillery nor air power could dislodge the outposts manned by the Pakistani soldiers, who were out of visible range. The Indian Army mounted some direct frontal ground assaults which were slow and took a heavy toll given the steep ascent that had



During the Kargil conflict IAF Mirage 2000Hs carried out strike missions.

to be made on peaks as high as 18000 feet (**unknown operator: u'strong'** m). Since any daylight attack would be suicidal, all the advances had to be made under the cover of darkness, escalating the risk of freezing. Accounting for the wind chill factor, the temperatures were often as low as –15 °C to –11 °C (12 °F to 5 °F) near the mountain tops. Based on military tactics, much of the costly frontal assaults by the Indians could have been avoided if the Indian Military had chosen to blockade the supply route of the opposing force, virtually creating a siege. Such a move would have involved the Indian troops crossing the LoC as well as initiating aerial attacks on Pakistan soil, a manoeuvre India was not willing to exercise fearing an expansion of the theatre of war and reducing international support for its cause.

Two months into the conflict, Indian troops had slowly retaken most of the ridges that were encroached by the infiltrators; [48][49] according to official count, an estimated 75%–80% of the intruded area and nearly all high ground was back under Indian control. [16]

Withdrawal and final battles

Following the outbreak of armed fighting, Pakistan sought American help in de-escalating the conflict. Bruce Riedel, aide to then President Bill Clinton reported that the US intelligence had imaged Pakistani movements of nuclear weapons to forward deployments for fear of the Kargil hostilities escalating into a wider conflict between the two countries. However, President Clinton refused to intervene until Pakistan had removed all forces from the Indian side of the Line of Control. Following the Washington accord on July 4, where Sharif agreed to withdraw Pakistani troops, most of the fighting came to a gradual halt, but some Pakistani forces remained in positions on the Indian side of the LOC. In addition, the United Jihad Council (an umbrella for extremist groups) rejected Pakistan's plan for a climb-down, instead deciding to fight on. [51]

The Indian army launched its final attacks in the last week of July; as soon as the Drass subsector had been cleared of Pakistani forces, the fighting ceased on July 26. The day has since been marked as *Kargil Vijay Diwas* (Kargil Victory Day) in India. By the end of the war, India had resumed control of all territory south and east of the Line of Control, as was established in July 1972 as per the Simla Agreement.

World opinion

Pakistan was criticised by other countries for instigating the war, as its paramilitary forces and insurgents crossed the Line of Control.^[52] Pakistan's primary diplomatic response, one of plausible deniability linking the incursion to what it officially termed as "Kashmiri freedom fighters", was in the end not successful.^[53] Veteran analysts argued that the battle was fought at heights where only seasoned troops could survive, so poorly equipped "freedom fighters" would neither have the ability nor the wherewithal to seize land and defend it. Moreover, while the army had initially denied the involvement of its troops in the intrusion, two soldiers were awarded the Nishan-E-Haider (Pakistan's

highest military honour). Another 90 soldiers were also given gallantry awards, most of them posthumously, confirming Pakistan's role in the episode. India also released taped phone conversations between the Army Chief and a senior Pakistani general where the latter is recorded saying: "the scruff of [the militants] necks is in our hands," [54] although Pakistan dismissed it as a "total fabrication". Concurrently, Pakistan made several contradicting statements, confirming its role in Kargil, when it defended the incursions saying that the LOC itself was disputed. [55] Pakistan also attempted to internationalize the Kashmir issue, by linking the crisis in Kargil to the larger Kashmir conflict but, such a diplomatic stance found few backers on the world stage. [56]

As the Indian counter-attacks picked up momentum, Pakistani prime minister Nawaz Sharif flew to meet U.S. President Bill Clinton on July 4 to obtain support from the United States. Clinton rebuked Sharif, however, and asked him to use his contacts to rein in the militants and withdraw Pakistani soldiers from Indian territory. Clinton would later reveal in his autobiography that "Sharif's moves were perplexing" since the Indian Prime Minister had travelled to Lahore to promote bilateral talks aimed at resolving the Kashmir problem and "by crossing the Line of Control, Pakistan had wrecked the [bilateral] talks." On the other hand, he applauded Indian restraint for not crossing the LoC and escalating the conflict into an all-out war. [58]

G8 nations supported India and condemned the Pakistani violation of the LOC at the Cologne summit. The European Union also opposed Pakistan's violation of the LOC. [59] China, a long-time ally of Pakistan, insisted on a pullout of forces to the pre-conflict positions along the LoC and settling border issues peacefully. Other organizations like the ASEAN Regional Forum too supported India's stand on the inviolability of the LOC. [56]

Faced with growing international pressure, Sharif managed to pull back the remaining soldiers from Indian territory. The joint statement issued by Clinton and Sharif conveyed the need to respect the Line of Control and resume bilateral talks as the best forum to resolve all disputes. [60][61]

Gallantry awards

A number of Indian soldiers earned awards for gallantry during the campaign. [62]

- Grenadier Yogendra Singh Yadav, 18 Grenadiers, Param Vir Chakra
- Lieutenant Manoj Kumar Pandey, 1/11 Gorkha Rifles, Param Vir Chakra, Posthumous
- Captain Vikram Batra, 13 JAK Rifles, Param Vir Chakra, Posthumous
- Captain Anuj Nayyar,17 JAT Regiment, Maha Vir Chakra, Posthumous
- Major Saravanan, 1 Bihar, Vir Chakra, Posthumous
- Squadron Leader Ajay Ahuja, Indian Air Force, Vir Chakra, Posthumous
- Rifleman Sanjay Kumar, 13 JAK Rifles, Param Vir Chakra
- · Major Rajesh Singh Adhikari, 18 Grenadiers, Maha Vir Chakra, Posthumous

Two Pakistani soldiers received the Nishan-e-Haider. [63]

- Captain Karnal Sher Khan, Nishan-e-Haider, Posthumous
- Havaldaar Lalak Jan, Northern Light Infantry, Nishan-e-Haider, Posthumous

Impact and influence of media

The Kargil War was significant for the impact and influence of the mass media on public opinion in both nations. Coming at a time of exploding growth in electronic journalism in India, the Kargil news stories and war footage were often telecast live on TV, ^[64] and many websites provided in-depth analysis of the war. The conflict became the first "live" war in South Asia; ^[65] it was given such detailed media coverage that one effect was the drumming up of jingoistic feelings.

The conflict soon turned into a news propaganda war, in which press briefings given by government officials of each nation produced conflicting claims and counterclaims. The Indian government placed a temporary news embargo on information from Pakistan, banning the telecast of the state-run Pakistani channel PTV^[66] and blocking access to

online editions of the *Dawn* newspaper.^[67] The Pakistani media criticized this apparent curbing of freedom of the press in India, while India media claimed it was in the interest of national security. The Indian government ran advertisements in foreign publications including *The Times* and *The Washington Post* detailing Pakistan's role in supporting extremists in Kashmir in an attempt to garner political support for its position.

As the war progressed, media coverage of the conflict was more intense in India than in Pakistan. [68] Many Indian channels showed images from the battle zone in a style reminiscent of CNN's coverage of the Gulf War (one of the shells fired by Pakistan troops even hit a Doordarshan transmission centre in Kargil while coverage continued). [69] Reasons for India's increased coverage included the greater number of privately owned electronic media in India compared to Pakistan and relatively greater transparency in the Indian media. At a seminar in Karachi, Pakistani journalists agreed that while the Indian government had taken the press and the people into its confidence, Pakistan had not. [70]

The print media in India and abroad was largely sympathetic to the Indian cause, with editorials in newspapers based in the west and other neutral countries observing that Pakistan was largely responsible for the conflict. Some analysts believe that Indian media, which was both larger in number and more credible, may have acted as a force multiplier for the Indian military operation in Kargil and served as a morale booster.^[71] As the fighting intensified, the Pakistani version of events found little backing on the world stage. This helped India gain valuable diplomatic recognition for its position.

WMDs and the nuclear factor

Since Pakistan and India each had weapons of mass destruction, many in the international community were concerned that if the Kargil conflict intensified, it could lead to nuclear war. Both countries had tested their nuclear capability in 1998 (India conducted its first test in 1974 while it was Pakistan's first-ever nuclear test). Many pundits believed the tests to be an indication of the escalating stakes in the scenario in South Asia. When the Kargil conflict started just a year after the nuclear tests, many nations desired to end it before it intensified.

International concerns increased when Pakistani foreign secretary Shamshad Ahmad made a statement on May 31 warning that an escalation of the limited conflict could lead Pakistan to use "any weapon" in its arsenal. ^[72] This was immediately interpreted as a threat of nuclear retaliation by Pakistan in the event of an extended war, and the belief was reinforced when the leader of Pakistan's senate noted, "The purpose of developing weapons becomes meaningless if they are not used when they are needed." ^[73] Many such ambiguous statements from officials of both countries were viewed as warnings of an impending nuclear crisis where the combatants would consider use of their limited nuclear arsenals in 'tactical' nuclear warfare in the belief that it would not have ended in mutual assured destruction, as could have occurred in a nuclear conflict between the United States and the USSR. Some experts believe that following nuclear tests in 1998, the Pakistani military was emboldened by its nuclear deterrent to markedly increase coercion against India. ^[74]

The nature of the India-Pakistan conflict took a more sinister turn when the U.S. received intelligence that Pakistani nuclear warheads were being moved towards the border. Bill Clinton tried to dissuade Pakistan prime minister Nawaz Sharif from nuclear brinkmanship, even threatening Pakistan of dire consequences. According to a White House official, Sharif seemed to be genuinely surprised by this supposed missile movement and responded that India was probably planning the same. In an article in May 2000 Dr Sanjay Badri-Maharaj claimed that India too had readied at least five nuclear-tipped ballistic missiles, but could not back up this claim with any official proof. [75]

Sensing a deteriorating military scenario, diplomatic isolation, and the risks of a larger conventional and nuclear war, Sharif ordered the Pakistani army to vacate the Kargil heights. He later claimed in his official biography that General Pervez Musharraf had moved nuclear warheads without informing him.^[76] Recently however, Pervez Musharraf revealed in his memoirs that Pakistan's nuclear delivery system was not operational during the Kargil war; something that would have put Pakistan under serious disadvantage if the conflict went nuclear.

The threat of WMD included chemical and even biological weapons. Pakistan accused India of using chemical weapons and incendiary weapons such as napalm against the Kashmiri fighters. India, on the other hand, showcased a cache of gas masks as proof that Pakistan may have been prepared to use non-conventional weapons. US official and the Organisation for the Prohibition of Chemical Weapons determined that Pakistani allegations of India using banned chemicals in its bombs were unfounded. [77]

Aftermath

India

From the end of the war until February 2000, the Indian stock market rose by over 30%. The next Indian national budget included major increases in military spending.

There was a surge in patriotism, with many celebrities expressing their support for the Kargil cause. ^[78] Indians were angered by media reports of the death of pilot Ajay Ahuja, especially after Indian authorities reported that Ahuja had been murdered and his body mutilated by Pakistani troops. The war had produced higher than expected fatalities for the Indian military, with a sizeable percentage of them including newly commissioned officers. One month after conclusion of the Kargil war, the Atlantique Incident - where a Pakistan Navy plane was shot down by India - briefly reignited fears of a conflict between the two countries.

After the war, the Indian government severed ties with Pakistan and increased defence preparedness. India increased its defence budget as it sought to acquire more state of the art equipment. [79] Media reported about military procurement irregularities and criticism of intelligence agencies like Research and Analysis Wing, which failed to predict the intrusions or the identity/number of infiltrators during the war. An internal assessment report by the armed forces, published in an Indian magazine, showed several other failings, including "a sense of complacency" and being "unprepared for a conventional war" on the presumption that nuclearism would sustain peace. It also highlighted the lapses in command and control, the insufficient troop levels and the dearth of large-calibre guns like the Bofors. [81] In 2006, retired Air Chief Marshal, A.Y. Tipnis, alleged that the Indian Army did not fully inform the government about the intrusions, adding that the army chief Ved Prakash Malik, was initially reluctant to use the full strike capability of the Indian Air Force, instead requesting only helicopter gunship support. [82] Soon after the conflict, India also decided to complete the project - previously stalled by Pakistan - to fence the entire LOC. [83]

The end of the Kargil conflict was followed by the 13th Indian General Elections to the Lok Sabha, which gave a decisive mandate to the National Democratic Alliance (NDA) government. It was re-elected to power in September–October 1999 with a majority of 303 seats out of 545 in the Lok Sabha. On the diplomatic front, Indo-U.S. relations improved, as the United States appreciated Indian attempts to restrict the conflict to a limited geographic area. [84] Relations with Israel – which had discreetly aided India with ordnance supply and matériel such as unmanned aerial vehicles and laser-guided bombs, as well as satellite imagery – also were bolstered. [85]

Kargil Review Committee

Soon after the war the Atal Behari Vajpayee government set up an inquiry into its causes and to analyze perceived Indian intelligence failures. The high-powered committee was chaired by eminent strategic affairs analyst K. Subrahmanyam and given powers to interview anyone with current or past associations with Indian security, including former Prime Ministers. The committee's final report (also referred to as the 'Subrahmanyam Report'^[86]) led to a large-scale restructuring of Indian Intelligence.^[87] It, however, came in for heavy criticism in the Indian media for its perceived avoidance of assigning specific responsibility for failures over detecting the Kargil intrusions.^[88] The Committee was also embroiled in controversy for indicting Brigadier Surinder Singh of the Indian Army for his failure to report enemy intrusions in time, and for his subsequent conduct. Many press reports questioned or contradicted this finding and claimed that Singh had in fact issued early warnings that were ignored by senior Indian Army commanders and, ultimately, higher government functionaries.^{[89][90][91]}

In a departure from the norm the final report was published and made publicly available. [92] Some chapters and all annexures, however, were deemed to contain classified information by the government and not released. K. Subrahmanyam later wrote that the annexures contained information on the development of India's nuclear weapons program and the roles played by Prime Ministers Rajiv Gandhi, P. V. Narasimha Rao and V P Singh. [93][94]

Pakistan

Faced with the possibility of international isolation, the already fragile Pakistani economy was weakened further. [95][96] The morale of Pakistani forces after the withdrawal declined as many units of the Northern Light Infantry suffered heavy casualties. [11][97] The government refused to accept the dead bodies of many officers, [98][99] an issue that provoked outrage and protests in the Northern Areas. [100][101] Pakistan initially did not acknowledge many of its casualties, but Sharif later said that over 4,000 Pakistani troops were killed in the operation. [102] Responding to this, Pakistan President Pervez Musharraf said, "It hurts me when an ex-premier undermines his own forces," and claimed that Indian casualties were more than that of Pakistan. [103]

Many in Pakistan had expected a victory over the Indian military based on Pakistani official reports on the war, ^[95] but were dismayed by the turn of events and questioned the eventual retreat. ^{[20][104]} The military leadership is believed to have felt let down by the prime minister's decision to withdraw the remaining fighters. However, some authors, including ex-CENTCOM Commander Anthony Zinni, and ex-PM Nawaz Sharif, state that it was General Musharraf who requested Sharif to withdraw the Pakistani troops. ^{[105][106]} With Sharif placing the onus of the Kargil attacks squarely on the army chief Pervez Musharraf, there was an atmosphere of uneasiness between the two. On October 12, 1999, General Musharraf staged a bloodless *coup d'état*, ousting Nawaz Sharif.

Benazir Bhutto, an opposition leader and former prime minister, called the Kargil War "Pakistan's greatest blunder". [107] Many ex-officials of the military and the Inter-Services Intelligence (Pakistan's principal intelligence agency) also believed that "Kargil was a waste of time" and "could not have resulted in any advantage" on the larger issue of Kashmir. [108] A retired Pakistani Army General, Lt Gen Ali Kuli Khan Khattak, lambasted the war as "a disaster bigger than the East Pakistan tragedy", [109] adding that the plan was "flawed in terms of its conception, tactical planning and execution" that ended in "sacrificing so many soldiers." [109][110] The Pakistani media criticized the whole plan and the eventual climbdown from the Kargil heights since there were no gains to show for the loss of lives and it only resulted in international condemnation. [111]

Despite calls by many, no public commission of inquiry was set up in Pakistan to investigate the people responsible for initiating the conflict. The Pakistan Muslim League (N) (PML(N)) published a white paper in 2006, which stated that Nawaz Sharif constituted an inquiry committee that recommended a court martial for General Pervez Musharraf, but Musharraf "stole the report" after toppling the government, to save himself. The report also claims that India knew about the plan 11 months before its launch, enabling a complete victory for India on military, diplomatic and economic fronts. A statement in June, 2008 by a former Pakistan Army X Corps Core-commander and Director-General of Military Intelligence (M.I.) that time, Lieutenant-General (retired) Jamshed Gulzar Kiani said that As Prime minister, Nawaz Sharif "was never briefed by the army" on the Kargil attack, reignited the demand for a probe of the episode by legal and political groups. [115][116]

Though the Kargil conflict had brought the Kashmir dispute into international focus – which was one of the aims of Pakistan – it had done so in negative circumstances that eroded its credibility, since the infiltration came just after a peace process between the two countries was underway. The sanctity of the LOC too received international recognition. President Clinton's move to ask Islamabad to withdraw hundreds of armed militants from Indian-administered Kashmir was viewed by many in Pakistan as indicative of a clear shift in US policy against Pakistan. [117]

After the war, a few changes were made to the Pakistan army. In recognition of the Northern Light Infantry's performance in the war - which even drew praise from a retired Indian Lt. General^[40] - the regiment was incorporated into the regular army. The war showed that despite a tactically sound plan that had the element of

surprise, little groundwork had been done to gauge the politico-diplomatic ramifications.^[118] And like previous unsuccessful infiltrations attempts, such as *Operation Gibraltar*, which sparked the 1965 war, there was little coordination or information sharing among the branches of the Pakistani Armed Forces. One U.S. Intelligence study is reported to have stated that Kargil was yet another example of Pakistan's (lack of) grand strategy, repeating the follies of the previous wars.^[119]

Casualties

Pakistan army losses have been difficult to determine. Pakistan confirmed that 453 soldiers were killed. The US Department of State had made an early, partial estimate of close to 700 fatalities. According to numbers stated by Nawaz Sharif there were over 4,000 fatalities. His PML (N) party in its "white paper" on the war mentioned that more than 3,000 Mujahideens, officers and soldiers were killed. [120] Another major Pakistani political party, the Pakistan Peoples Party, also says that "thousands" of soldiers and irregulars died. [121] Indian estimates stand at 1.042 Pakistani soldiers killed. [122] Musharraf, in his Hindi version of his memoirs, titled "Agnipath", differs from all the estimates stating that 357 troops were killed with a further 665 wounded. [123] Apart from General Musharraf's figure on the number of Pakistanis wounded, the number of people injured in the Pakistan camp is not yet fully known although they are at least more than 400 according to Pakistan army's website. [124] One Indian Pilot was officially captured during the fighting, while there were eight Pakistani soldiers who were captured during the fighting, and were repatriated on 13 August 1999; [125]



Memorial of Operation Vijay.

India gave its official casualty figures as 527 dead and 1,363 wounded.

Kargil War in the arts

The brief conflict provided considerable dramatic material for filmmakers and authors in India. Some documentaries which were shot on the subject were used by the ruling party coalition, led by Bharatiya Janata Party (BJP), in furthering its election campaign that immediately followed the war. The following is a list of the major films and dramas on the subject.

- "Lord John Marbury (The West Wing)" (1999), 11th episode of the first season depicts a fictionalized representation of the Kargil conflict.
- Pentagram's single, 'Price Of Bullets', released in 1999 dealt with the Kargil War.
- LOC: Kargil (2003), a Hindi movie which depicts many incidents from the war was one of the longest in Indian movie history, running for more than four hours.^[126]
- *Lakshya* (2004), another Hindi movie portraying a fictionalised account of the conflict. Movie critics have generally appreciated the realistic portrayal of characters. ^[127] The film also received good reviews in Pakistan because it portrays both sides fairly. ^[128]
- Sainika (2002), [129] the Kannada film directed by Mahesh Sukhdhare depicted the life of a soldier with Kargil war as one of the events. Starring C.P.Yogishwar and Sakshi Shivanand.
- *Dhoop* (2003), [130] Hindi film, directed by national award winner Ashwini Chaudhary, which depicted the life of Anuj Nayyar's parents after his death. Anuj Nayyar was a captain in the Indian army and was awarded Maha Vir Chakra posthumously. Om Puri plays the role of S.K. Nayyar, Anuj's father.

 Mission Fateh - Real Stories of Kargil Heroes, a TV series telecast on Sahara channel chronicling the Indian Army's missions.

- *Fifty Day War* A theatrical production on the war, directed by Aamir Raza Husain, the title indicating the length of the Kargil conflict. This was claimed to be the biggest production of its kind in Asia, budget of Rs. 1.5 crore, involving real aircraft and explosions in an outdoor setting.^[131]
- *Kurukshetra*(2008) A Malayalam film directed by a former Indian Army Major major Ravi (Retd) based on his actual experience of Kargil War.

Many other movies like *Tango Charlie*^[132] drew heavily upon the Kargil episode, which still continues to be a plot for mainstream movies with a Malayalam movie *Keerthi Chakra*.^[133] The impact of the war in the sporting arena was also visible during the India-Pakistan clash in the 1999 Cricket World Cup, which coincided with the Kargil timeline. The game witnessed heightened passions and was one of the most viewed matches in the tournament.

Notes

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Footnotes

• Note (I): Names for the conflict: There have been various names for the conflict. During the actual fighting in Kargil, the Indian Government was careful not to use the term "war", calling it a "war-like situation", even though both nations indicated that they were in a "state of war". Terms like Kargil "conflict", Kargil "incident" or the official military assault, "Operation Vijay", were thus preferred. After the end of the war however, the Indian Government increasingly called it the "Kargil War", even though there had been no official declaration of war. Other less popularly used names included "Third Kashmir War" and Pakistan's codename given to the infiltration: "Operation Badr".

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External links

- Indian Armed Forces site on Kargil (http://indianarmy.nic.in/arkargil/welcome.html)
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- Video of Indian army handling over bodies of Pakistani soldiers to Pak army (http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=E7HkMaGsSRQ)

War progress

Kargil order of battle

The following is the **order of battle of both the Indian and Pakistani troops** during the Kargil War. While the Indian orbat is based on publications by Indian authors, sourced from official sources and newspaper reports, the Pakistan orbat is based on Indian Intelligence reports. It must also be noted that Pakistani orbat does not include the separatist fighters who were also involved in fighting atop the peaks of Kargil.

Indian Orbat

Indian Army

Northern Command

- XV Corps
- XV Corps Artillery Brigade
- HQ 8 Mountain Division (ex Sharifabad, Valley)
- 8 Mountain Artillery Brigade (division artillery)
- 121(Independent) Infantry Brigade Group
 - 16 Grenadiers
 - 4 Jat
 - 3 Punjab
 - 10 Garhwal
 - BSF Bn
 - Det 17 Guards (ATGM)
- 56 Mountain Brigade (Matayan) (part of division)
 - 16 Grenadiers
 - 18 Grenadiers
 - 8 Sikh
 - 1 Naga
 - 2 Raj Rif
 - · 18 Garhwal
 - 13 JAK Rif
 - 1/3 GR
 - 9 Para Cdos
 - Det 17 Guards (ATGM)
- 50 (Independent) Parachute Brigade (ex Army HQ Reserves)
 - 6 Parachute
 - 7 Parachute
 - 1 Parachute Commandos
 - Det 19 Guards (ATGM)
- 192 Mountain Brigade (part of division)
 - · 18 Grenadiers

Kargil order of battle 213

- 8 Sikh
- 9 Para Cdos
- Det 17 Guards (ATGM)
- 79 Mountain Brigade (Dras) (part of division)
 - 17 Jat
 - 28 RR
 - 12 Mahar
 - 13 JAK Rif
 - 2 Naga
 - 9 Para Cdos
 - Det 17 Guards (ATGM)

3 Infantry Division (Leh)

- 3 Artillery Brigade (divisional artillery)
- 70 Infantry Brigade Group (ex Demchok, China border) (regularly assigned to division)
 - 1/11 GR
 - 12 JAK LI
 - 10 Para Cdos
 - 1 Bihar
 - · Ladakh Scouts
 - 17 Garhwal
 - 5 Para
 - 14 Sikh
 - Det 19 Guards (ATGM)
- 102 (Independent) Infantry Brigade Group (Shyok River Valley) (normally under command 3 Division)
 - 11 Rajputana Rifles
 - 9 Mahar
 - 13 Kumaon
 - 27 Rajput
 - Det High Altitude Warfare School Permanent Cadre
 - Det 19 Guards (ATGM)

Kargil Theatre Artillery (these arty units took part in the War serving under various formations)

Lt = Light; Fd = Field; Med = Medium; Hvy Mor = Heavy Mortar

- 4 Fd Regt
- 15 Fd Regt
- 41 Fd Regt
- 108 Med Regt
- 139 Med Regt
- 141 Fd Regt
- 153 Med Regt
- 158 Med Regt
- 197 Fd Regt
- 212 Rocket Regt
- 244 Hvy Mor Regt
- 253 Med Regt
- 255 Fd Regt

Kargil order of battle 214

- 286 Med Regt
- 305 Med Regt
- 307 Med Regt
- 315 Fd Regt
- 1861 Lt Regt
- 1889 Lt Regt

Other battalions^[1]

- 5 Special Frontier Force (Vikas Force)
- 663 Reconnaissance & Observation Squadron
- 668 Reconnaissance & Observation Squadron
- Ladakh Scouts: Karakoram & India Wings
- 13 Punjab
- 12 Grenadiers
- 22 Grenadiers
- 7 Jat (may have been mistaken)
- 14 Sikh LI (may have been mistaken)
- 9 Rashtriya Rifles
- 14 Rashtriya Rifles
- 17 Rashtriya Rifles
- 11 Sikh
- 3 J&K Rifles
- 16 Dogras
- · Dogra Scouts
- 5 Rajput
- 9 Mahar

Indian Air Force

Apart from the involvement of the Indian Army, the Indian Air Force (IAF) also participated in the Kargil War as part of Operation Safed Sagar.

Pakistan orbat

- 5 NLI battalion
- 6 NLI battalion
- 12 NLI battalion^[2]
- 13 NLI battalion
- 24 SIND [3]
- 27 SIND [2]

Kargil order of battle 215

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Nuclear conflict

Smiling Buddha

Pokhran-I <i>Operation Smiling Buddha</i>		
Country	India	
Test site	Pokhran	
Period	May 1974	
Number of tests	1	
Test type	Underground tests	
Device type	Fission	
Max. yield	8 kilotons of TNT (unknown operator: u'strong' TJ)	
Navigation		
Previous test	None	
Next test	Pokhran-II	

Smiling Buddha,^[1] formally designated as **Pokhran-I**, was the codename given to the Republic of India's first nuclear test explosion that took place at the long-constructed Indian Army base, Pokhran Test Range at Pokhran municipality, Rajasthan state on 18 May 1974 at 8:05 a.m. (IST).^[2] It was also the first confirmed nuclear test by a nation outside the five permanent members of the United Nations Security Council. The explosive yield of the bomb was reported to be 8 kt.^[3]

History

The nuclear weapons efforts were remarkably established in 1944 by Homi J. Bhabha who founded the nuclear institute Institute of Fundamental Research in 1944.^[4] Nuclear physicist Piara Singh Gill also returned to the country from the United States after participating in the Manhattan Project in 1945.^[4] Physicists such as Chandrasekhara Raman and Satyendra Bose later went on to play an integral role in the research of nuclear weapons technology.^[4]

After Indian independence, Prime Minister Jawarharalal Nehru authorized the development of a nuclear programme headed by Homi J. Bhabha; the *Atomic Energy Act* of 1948 focuses on peaceful development.^[4] India was heavily involved in the development of the Nuclear Non-Proliferation Treaty, but ultimately opted not to sign.^[5]

We must develop this atomic energy quite apart from war - indeed I think we must develop it for the purpose of using it for peaceful purposes. ... Of course, if we are compelled as a nation to use it for other purposes, possibly no pious sentiments of any of us will stop the nation from using it that way

—Jawaharalal Nehru— 1st Premier of Republic of India, [4]

In 1954, Bhabha moved the nuclear programme in a direction towards weapons design and production. Bhabha established two important infrastructure projects - the Bhabha Atomic Research Centre at Mumbai and the Department of Atomic Energy (DAE) of which Bhabha was its first secretary. Between the period of 1954 to 1959, the nuclear programme grew swiftly and by 1958 the DAE had 1/3 of the defence budget for research purposes. ^[4] In 1954, the United States and Canada, as part of the Atoms for Peace policy, agreed to provide and established the small research reactor, *CIRUS*, also at Trombay. Acquisition of *CIRUS* was a watershed event in nuclear

proliferation, with understanding between India and the United States that the reactor would be used for research purposes only.^[4] The *CIRUS* was an ideal facility to develop the plutonium bomb, therefore Nehru had refused to accept the nuclear fuel from Canada, and started the programme to develop the ingenious nuclear fuel cycle.^[4]

In 1962, the nuclear programme continued to develop, but at slow rate. Nehru was distracted by the Sino-Indian War, but lost territory after China had successfully annexed the territory after launching a successful assault. [4] Nehru turned to the Soviet Union for help but it was facing the missile crisis. [4] The Soviet Politburo turned down Nehru's request for weapon supply and continued backing the Chinese. [4] The legacy of this war left an impression on India that the Soviet Union was an unreliable ally, therefore a nuclear deterrence was felt necessary at that time. [4] Design work began in 1965 under Bhabha but later proceeded by Raja Ramanna who took over the programme after former's death.

However, the nuclear programme came to a halt after Lal Bahadur Shastri became the prime minister after Nehru's death. Shastri faced a another war, this time with West Pakistan (now Pakistan). Shastri appointed Doctor Vikram Sarabhai as the head of nuclear programme, but because of his Gandhian beliefs, Sarabhai focused the programme to be developed into more peaceful purposes rather than the military applications. [6]

In 1967, after Indira Gandhi became the prime minister, the work on nuclear programme resumed with new a attitude and goals. [4] Homi Sethna, a chemical engineer, played a significant role in the development of weapon-grade plutonium while Ramanna designed and manufactured the whole nuclear device. [6] Because of the sensitivity, the first nuclear bomb project did not employ more than 75 scientists. [6]

India continued to harbor ambivalent feelings about nuclear weapons and accord low priority to their production until the Indo-Pakistani War of 1971. In the same month of December 1971, when Richard Nixon sent a carrier battle group led by the USS *Enterprise* (CVN-65) into the Bay of Bengal in an attempt to intimidate India, the Soviet Union responded by sending a submarine armed with nuclear missiles from Vladivostok to trail the US task force. The Soviet response demonstrated the deterrent value and significance of nuclear weapons and ballistic missile submarines to Indira Gandhi.^[7]

On 7 September 1972, Indira Gandhi authorized the Bhabha Atomic Research Centre (BARC) to manufacture a nuclear device and prepare it for a test. ^[5] Throughout its development, the device was formally called the "Peaceful Nuclear Explosive", but it was usually referred to as the *Smiling Buddha*.

Development team

The head of the development team was Raja Ramanna. Other key personnel included P. K. Iyengar, Rajagopala Chidambaram, Nagapattinam Sambasiva Venkatesan, and Waman Dattatreya Patwardhan under the supervision of Homi N. Sethna. Chidambaram, who would later coordinate work on the Pokhran-II tests, began work on the equation of state of plutonium in late 1967 or early 1968. To preserve secrecy, the project employed no more than 75 scientists and engineers from 1967–1974. Dr. Abdul Kalam also arrived at the test site as the representative of the TBRL although he had no role whatsoever in the development of the nuclear bomb or even in the nuclear programme.

Role of Indian Nuclear Research Institutes

The device used a implosion system developed at the DRDO Terminal Ballistics Research Laboratory (TBRL) in Chandigarh based on the Fat Man design. The detonation system was developed at the High Energy Materials Research Laboratory (HEMRL) of DRDO at Pune. The 6 kg of plutonium came from the CIRUS reactor at BARC. The neutron initiator was of polonium-beryllium type and code-named *Flower*. The complete core was assembled in Trombay before transportation to the test site.

Cross-section of the device

The fully assembled device had a hexagonal cross section, 1.25 meter in diameter and weighed 1400 kg. The device was detonated at 8.05 a.m. in a shaft 107 m under the army Pokhran test range in the Thar Desert (or Great Indian Desert), Rajasthan. Coordinates of the crater are 27°05′42″N 71°45′11″E.

Controversial yield

The yield of this test has remained controversial with unclear data provided by Indian sources. Although occasional press reports have given ranges from 20 kt to as low as 2 kt, the official yield was initially reported at 12 kt (post Operation Shakti claims have raised it to 13 kt). Outside seismic data and analysis of the crater features indicates a lower figure. Analysts usually estimate the yield at 4 to 6 kt using conventional seismic magnitude-to-yield conversion formulas. In recent years, both Homi Sethna and P.K. Iyengar conceded the official yield to be an exaggeration. Iyengar has variously stated that the yield was actually 8–10 kt, that the device was designed to yield 10 kt, and that the yield was 8 kt 'exactly as predicted'. Careful analysis of hard rock cratering effects establishes a tight bound around 8 kt for the yield. [3]

Code name

The project's code name was Smiling Buddha and the detonation was scheduled to occur on 18 May 1974 (the official test date), Buddha Jayanti, a festival day in India marking the birth of Gautama Buddha.

Aftermath

In 1975, Homi Sethna (chairman of the Atomic Energy Commission), Raja Ramanna and Basanti Dulal Nagchaudhuri (Scientific Advisor of the DRDO) received the *Padma Vibhushan* - India's second highest civilian award. Five other project members received the *Padma Shri* - India's fourth highest civilian award.

International reaction

While India continued to state that the test was for peaceful purposes, it was shown opposition from many corners. The Nuclear Suppliers Group (NSG) was formed in reaction to the Indian tests to check international nuclear proliferation. ^[9] The NSG decided in 1992 to require full-scope IAEA safeguards for any new nuclear export deals, ^[10] which effectively ruled out nuclear exports to India, but in 2008 waived this restriction on nuclear trade with India as part of the Indo-US civilian nuclear agreement. ^[11]

Pakistan

Pakistan did not view the test as a "peaceful nuclear explosion", and canceled talks scheduled for June 10 on normalization of relations. Pakistan's Prime minister Zulfikar Ali Bhutto vowed in June 1974 that he would never succumb to "nuclear blackmail" or accept "Indian hegemony or domination over the subcontinent". The Pakistan Atomic Energy Commission Chairman Munir Ahmed Khan said that the test would force Pakistan to test its own nuclear bomb. Pakistan's leading nuclear physicist, Pervez Hoodbhoy, stated in 2011 that he believes the test "pushed [Pakistan] further into the nuclear arena".

United States and Canada

The plutonium used in the test was created at the CIRUS reactor supplied by Canada and using heavy water supplied by the United States. Both countries reacted negatively, especially in light of then ongoing negotiations on the Nuclear Non-Proliferation Treaty and the economic aid both countries provided to India. [16][5] Canada concluded that the test violated a 1971 understanding between the two states, and froze nuclear energy assistance for the two heavy water reactors then under construction. [5] The United States concluded that the test did not violate any

agreement and proceeded with a June 1974 shipment of enriched uranium for the Tarapur reactor. [5]

Soviet Union

The Soviet Union did not issue any statement, [17] remaining silent in support of India.

France

France sent a congratulatory telegram to India but later on withdrew it. [17]

China

China, itself a member of the nuclear club since 1964, issued no comment on the test. [5]

Effects

The CIRUS reactor used to produce the plutonium was a research reactor based on the NRX design and donated by Canada in 1960, with heavy water supplied by the US; ("CIRUS" = Canada-India Research U.S.). The Smiling Buddha test caused a public outcry in Canada, and in May 1976 the Canadian government cut off exchange of nuclear materials and technology with India in the wake of the test.

Pokhran-II

After the test, India continued expanding its nuclear power capacity and developing its nuclear physics programme, but made no further nuclear tests until 1998. Operation Shakti was carried out two months after the 1998 elections at the Pokhran test site, and used devices designed and built over the preceding two decades. [5][18]

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Kirana Hills

The **Kirana Hills** is a small mountain range in Pakistan's Punjab province. It spans approximately 40 miles across the districts of Sargodha and Jhang.

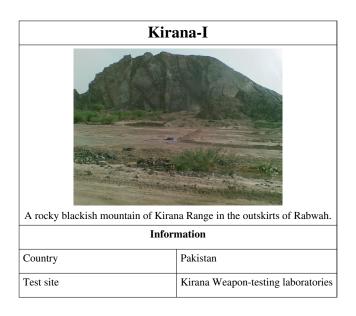
Topography

The highest peak in the Kirana Hills is Koh-e-Kirana, which is about 980 feet high. The region is also known as "*Black Mountains*" by locals because of the dark brown colours of the range. The Kirana Hills and its environs are heavily infested with wild boar.



An aerial view of the Kirana Hills.

Science in Kirana



Period	1983-1990	
Number of tests	24	
Test type	Underground subcritical tests	
Device type	Non-fission	
Max. yield	N/A; Classified	
Navigation		
Previous test	None	
Next test	Chagai-I	

Kirana-I were the series of 24 cold-tests conducted by Pakistan from 1983 till 1990. The tests were primarily conducted by Pakistan Atomic Energy Commission for the purposes of studying effects of nuclear detonation, with armed forces' playing a supporting role. The weapon-testing programme was kept in extreme secrecy with only few in the government knowing about it. The tests proved the capability of Pakistan to have successfully developed the atomic bomb project and to perform the tests without outside interference.

Orgnizations

The development, designing and construction of the weapon-testing laboratories at this region was initiated by Pakistan Atomic Energy Commission's Munir Ahmad Khan, as its technical director, and Major-General Zahid Ali Akbar, as Military director of the Civil engineers Corps. [1] Several meetings between civilian Pakistan Atomic Energy Commission officials and military officials of Corps of Engineers took place before starting the work. Finally having started in 1979, the Pakistan Atomic Energy Commission (PAEC) and the Corps of Engineers completed the construction of the weapon-testing laboratories in 1983, and it was named as Kirana Weapon-testing laboratories (Kirana-WTL). The tunnels and weapon-testing laboratories were reported as have been bored after the Chagai weapon-testing labs and as similar to Chagai, the underground tunnels and weapons-testing laboratories at Kirana Hills had been bored and then sealed and this task was also undertaken by SDW.

The "Special Development Works", codename SDW, was a specially commissioned military unit of renowned Pakistan's military scientists and engineers founded by Brigadier Muhammad Sarfaraz in 1977. The SDW was responsible for the construction of the weapon-test sites and the military scientists of the SDW had closely their logistics support to PAEC in the developmental phases of the atomic bomb project. A joint task force was given commissioned with SDW and had Air Vice-Marshal (Major-General) Michale O'Brian, Major-General Zahid Ali Akbar, and Rear-Admiral Iftikhar Sirohey as its test commanders. The SDW had small number of engineer officers, but extremely capable of achieving tasks and put under joint-task force's command. The weapon-testing labs were established and constructed under the command of air marshal O'Brian in the region that is generally closed to public due to its high-rate of human disappearance and wild-life.

Preparations

The weapon-testing laboratories were carefully established and built by the military engineering formations. The military had long realized that United States' growing suspicion on secret military projects, therefore, the labs were constructed and built at night and quickly paced up the work before the sunrise. This was done to avoid the American *Vela* satellite to pick up the advancement and to avoid alerting the civil population inhabitant in the area. The weapon-testing labs were heavily guarded by the joint task forces and the tourism activities in the designated areas were closed for the public.



Kirana Hills on Sargodha Fasisalabad Highway.

The PAEC had been monitoring the establishment of the weapon-testing labs and dispatched a small team of scientists from the Radiation Physics Division (RPD), assisted by the joint task force teams. The teams were sent to de-seal, open and clean the tunnels and to make sure the tunnels were clear of the wild boars that are found in abundance in the Sargodha region. The damage which these wild boars could do to men and equipment, computer facilities, and laboratories.

Tests predictions

After the preparations were done and tunnels were cleared out, the RPD along with their Military units joined the PAEC's Diagnostic Team, under dr. Samar Mubarakmand who arrived on the scene with trailers fitted with supercomputers and diagnostic equipments installed in the vans.^[2] They were followed by Wah Group Scientists under dr. Zaman Shaikh and DTD under Hafeez Qureshi, with the nuclear device in sub assembly form. The device was placed in the weapon-testing laboratory-I (WTL-I).^[2] monitoring system was set up with around 20 cables linking various parts of the device with oscillators in diagnostic vans parked near the Kirana Hills.^[2]

The device was tested using the push-button technique set in vintage style. The first test was to see whether the triggering mechanism created the necessary neutrons which would start a fission chain-reaction in the actual device. However, when the button was pushed, most of the wires connecting the device to the oscillators were severed due to errors committed in the preparation of the cables. At first, it was thought that the device had malfunctioned but closer scrutiny of two of the oscillators confirmed that the neutrons had indeed come out and a chain-reaction had taken place.

Test teams and development

The series of 24 different cold tests were conducted by the Pakistan Atomic Energy Commission chaired by Munir Ahmad Khan. ^[2] This secret weapon-testings operation was coined *Kirana-I* by nuclear physicist dr. Ishfaq Ahmad who was the laboratories director and technical member at the PAEC. Other PAEC's test development personnel and teams included Hafeez Qureshi— director of the Directorate of Technical Development; Dr. Zaman Sheikh, director of the Wah Group Scientists (WGS); Dr. Naeem Ahmad Khan— director of Radiation and Isotope Applications Division (RIAD); Dr. Masud Ahmad— director of Theoretical Physics Group (TPG); and Dr. Samar Mubarakmand, director of the Diagnostic Group (Diag Grp).

The tunnels at Kirana Hills, Sargodha, are reported to have been bored after the Chagai nuclear test sites, it is widely believed that the tunnels were constructed sometime between 1979 and 1983. As in Chagai, the tunnels at Kirana Hills had been bored and then sealed and this task was also undertaken by PAEC's DTD.^[2]

As a result, between 1983 and 1990, the PAEC's Wah Group and DTD conducted more than 24 cold tests of the nuclear device at Kirana Hills with the help of mobile diagnostic equipment. These tests were carried out in 24 tunnels measuring 100–150 feet in length which were bored inside the Kirana.

The explosive HMX (His Majesty's Explosive), which was used to trigger the device. The HMX nuclear device was tested by DTD led by Hafeez Qureshi. The successful cold fission test was led and supervised by renowned physicist dr. Ishfaq Ahmad, and it was witnessed by PAEC chairman Munir Ahmad Khan, Lieutenant-General Zahid Ali Akbar Khan, Air-Vice Marshal (Major-General) Michael John O'Brian, General Khalid Mahmud Arif, and then-Chairman of Senate of Pakistan, Ghulam Ishaq Khan. [3]

Results and aftermath

The need to improve and perfect the design of first nuclear device required constant testing. As a result, between 1983 and 1990, the Wah Group Scientists conducted more than 24 cold tests of the nuclear device at Kirana Hills with the help of mobile diagnostic equipment. These tests were carried out in 24 horizontal-shaft designated weapon-testing laboratories measuring 100–150 feet in length which were bored inside the Kirana Hills. Later due to excessive US intelligence and satellite focus on the Kirana Hills regions, it was abandoned and the WTL-I was shifted to the Kala-Chitta Range.

Development and the test teams

Pakistan Atomic Energy Commission

- Mr. Munir Ahmed Khan Chairman, Pakistan Atomic Energy Commission (PAEC)
- Dr. Ishfaq Ahmad Member (Technical) of PAEC.
- Dr. Samar Mubarakmand Director-General of the Diagnostics Group of PAEC (DG)
- Mr. Hafeez Qureshi Director-General of the Directorate of Technical Development (DTD)
- Dr. Zaman Sheikh -Directorate-General of the Wah Group of PAEC (WG).
- Dr. Naeem Ahmad Khan Director-General of Radiation and Isotope Applications Division (RIAD).
- Dr. Hameed Ahmed Khan Director-General of the Radiation Physics Division (RPD).
- Dr. Masud Ahmad Director-General of Theoretical Physics Group (TPG).

Pakistan Army Corps of Engineers

Lieutenant-General Zahid Ali Akbar, PA - Engineer-in-Chief of the Pakistan Army Engineering Core.

Special Works Development

- Major-General Michael John O'Brian, PAF Director-General of the Special Works Development
- Brigadier-General Muhammad Sarfaraz, PA Deputy Director of Special Works Development

Government Observants

- General Khalid Mahmud Arif PA Vice Chief of Army Staff
- Ghulam Ishaq Khan, SP Chairman of Senate of Pakistan, Ghulam Ishaq Khan
- Vice-Admiral Iftihar Ahmad Sirohey, PN Directorate-General Naval Weapon Engineering Branch (WEB).

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Pokhran-II

Pokhran-II Operation Shakti		
Image of Shaft-III named Shakti		
Information		
Country	India	
Test site	Indian Army Pokhran Test Range	
Period	11 May 1998	
Number of tests	5	
Test type	Underground tests	
Device type	Fission/fusion	
Max. yield	Claimed 58Kt by BARC, Independent assessment put it at 45Kt. [1]	
Navigation		
Previous test	Operation Smiling Buddha	
Next test	None	

Pokharan-II refers to test explosions of five nuclear devices, three on 11 May and two on 13 May 1998, conducted by India at the Pokhran test range. These nuclear tests resulted in a variety of sanctions against India by a number of major states.

On 18 May 1974, India exploded its first nuclear device code named *Operation Smiling Buddha*. After about a quarter century, on 11 May 1998, **Operation Shakti** was carried out. *Shakti* was the codename of a thermonuclear device that was exploded in Pokhran as part of Pokhran-II.

Birth of India's nuclear weapons program

The Indian nuclear programme dated back to 1944 when Homi Bhabha established the Institute of Fundamental Research in 1945. Under the long premiership of Nehru, the nuclear programme's infrastructure was carefully established, and much of the weapon related facilities given commissioned in 1950s, most notably Bhabha Atomic Research Centre that operates the *CIRUS* which was commissioned in 1960.

In 1962, India faced the bitter war with People's Republic of China and lost the territory it had controlled previously. Soon, the Chinese nuclear test, 596 in 1964 accelerated India's nuclear weapon efforts to counter the Chinese nuclear blackmailing. Preliminary studies were carried out at the Bhabha Atomic Research Centre and plans were developed to produce plutonium and other bomb components. Following the death of Nehru and Bhabha, the programme was revived and transferred into the hands of Vikram Sarabhai who also was the director of Indian Space Research Organization (ISRO). However, under the premiership of Lal Bahadur Shastri who faced the war with West-Pakistan

(now Pakistan) had the nuclear programme shelved and halted. This programme was again revived and re-started under the premiership of Indira Gandhi who gave the authorization soon after the *Test No.* 6— China's successful detonation of thermonuclear device. The programme was delegated to Raja Ramanna who aggressively developed the nuclear weapons and the nuclear programme completed a milestone in 1972. In 1974, Indira Gandhi gave authorization of the nuclear test, codename *Smiling Buddha*.

After the 1974 test, Prime Minister Morarji Desai shelved the programme and focused it to more academic research rather than military initiatives. ^[2] By 1977, Ramanna was replaced by Homi Sethna as the director of BARC and unsuccessfully attempted to thwart Ramanna's efforts. ^[2] In 1980, Indira Gandhi returned as the Prime Minister and re-evaluated the programme by bringing back Ramanna's role in the nuclear programme. Despite Gandhi's denial to conduct further tests, the nuclear programme continued to advance. ^[2] It was the 1980s that the work on hydrogen bombs and the missile programme was initiated, and Dr. Abdul Kalam, an aerospace engineer who developed the SLV programme for ISRO, was made the director of the missile programme. ^[2]

Successive governments in India decided to observe this temporary moratorium for fear of inviting international criticism. ^[2] In 1995, Prime Minister P.V. Narasimha Rao decided to carry out further tests. ^[3] But the plans were halted after American satellites picked up signs of preparations for testing at Pokhran. ^[3] The Americans under President Bill Clinton exerted enormous pressure on Rao to stop the preparations. ^[3] On February 28, the BJP came to power after the 1998 elections, and Atal Bihari Vajpayee became country's prime minister who had previously campaign on advocating for nuclear tests. On March 1998, Vajpayee administration asked the scientists to make preparations in a shortest time possible, and preparations were hastily made. ^[4] Finally, on 11 and 13 May 1998, under prime minister Atal Bihari Vajpayee, India conducted its second group of nuclear tests.

Preparations for the test

After the detection of the test preparations by American satellites in 1995, it was decided that preparations for the May 1998 tests should be undertaken under a blanket of secrecy so that foreign countries will not be able to detect the preparations. Extensive planning was drawn out and executed in order to deceive intelligence agencies around the world. Even the senior most cabinet members of the Government of India did not have slightest hint of these elaborate preparations. The preparations were managed by a closed group of scientists, military officers and politicians.

Dr. A.P.J. Abdul Kalam, the Scientific Adviser to the Prime Minister, and Dr. R. Chidambaram, the head of the Department of Atomic Energy, were the chief coordinators for the operation. They were assisted by the 58th Regiment of the Army Engineering Corps in preparing the test site. Scientists from the Bhabha Atomic Research Centre (BARC) and the Defence Research and Development Organization (DRDO) were involved in assembling the weapons, moving them to Pokhran, placing them into shafts in the ground and laying a network of sensors to gather data during the explosions.

The Regiment 58 Engineers had learned much since the aborted 1995 test preparations about avoiding detection by American satellites. Much work was done at night, and heavy equipment was always returned to the same parking spot at dawn so that satellite image analysts would conclude that the equipment was never moved. Piles of dug-out sand were shaped to mimic the wind shaped dune forms in the desert area. The shafts were dug under camouflage netting. When cables for sensors were laid they were carefully covered with sand, and native vegetation was replaced to conceal the digging.

The scientists involved in the operation took care to ensure that even their close friends and colleagues would not detect the work being undertaken at Pokhran. All scientists involved in the operation did not depart for Pokhran simultaneously, but left in groups of two or three. One group would use the pretext of attending a seminar or a conference, and would tell their wives that they could not be contacted while they were away. Tickets were bought for a destination other than Pokhran (or cities nearby) under pseudonyms, and after arriving at their destination, the group would secretly leave for the military base in Jaisalmer from where they would be taken by the army to

Pokhran. After finishing their work the group would return, retracing their path. Then another group would leave for the range employing similar means to do their work. In this way, information about the test was kept tightly under wraps. All technical staff at the range wore military fatigues, so that in satellite images they would appear to be military personnel maintaining the test range.

On the diplomatic front, India adopted a policy of ambiguity about deciding to go nuclear. Statements by Indian politicians and diplomats gave an impression to the world that India was not yet decided about its nuclear status. Deliberate steps were taken to ensure that the world community would not take the BJP's campaign promises seriously. In separate meetings with American officials, then Foreign secretary K.Raghunath and Defence Minister George Fernandes stated that India had not yet decided about going nuclear and they also conveyed to the officials that the National Security Council would be meeting soon to discuss the matter and decide about the nuclear option. The council was to meet on the 26th of May. Both the Indian officials had categorically told the Americans that "there would be no surprise testings". All this led the Americans and the world community to believe that India was not going to pursue the nuclear option in the near future. They did not take the BJP's campaign promises seriously and hence did not expect an Indian nuclear test so soon.

Name

The word *Shakti* (Hindi: মাৰ্ন্) means *Strength* in Sanskrit. The *Operation Shakti* was the codename of a thermonuclear device that was exploded in Pokhran Test Range in May 11.^[5]

Development and test teams

The main technical personnel involved in the operation were:

Project Chief Coordinators

- Dr. A.P.J. Abdul Kalam (later, President of India), Scientific Adviser to the Prime Minister and Head of the DRDO
- Dr. R. Chidambaram, Chairman of the Atomic Energy Commission and the Department of Atomic energy.

Bhabha Atomic Research Centre (BARC)

- Dr. Anil Kakodkar, Director of BARC.
- Dr. Satinder Kumar Sikka, Director; Thermonuclear Weapon Development.
- Dr. M.S. Ramkumar, Director of Nuclear Fuel and Automation Manufacturing Group; Director, Nuclear Component Manufacture.
- Dr. D.D. Sood, Director of Radiochemistry and Isotope Group; Director, Nuclear Materials Acquisition.
- Dr. S.K. Gupta, Solid State Physics and Spectroscopy Group; Director, Device Design & Assessment.
- Dr. G. Govindraj, Associate Director of Electronic and Instrumentation Group; Director, Field Instrumentation.

Defence Research & Development Organization (DRDO)

- Dr. K. Santhanam; Director, Test Site Preparations.
- Dr. M. Vasudev; Range Safety Officer.

Devices

A total of five nuclear weapons were detonated during Operation Shakti. They were:

Shakti I

A two stage thermonuclear device with a boosted fission primary, its yield was downgraded from 200 kt (theoretical) to 40 kt for test purposes.

Shakti II

A pure fission device using the Plutonium implosion design with a yield of 15 kt. The device tested was an actual nuclear warhead that can be delivered by bombers or fighters and also mounted on a missile. The warhead was an improved, lightweight and miniaturized version of the device tested in 1974. Scientists at BARC had been working to improve the 1974 design for many years. Data from the 1974 test was used to carry out computer simulations using the indigenous PARAM supercomputer to improve the design. The 1998 test was intended to prove the validity of the improved designs.

Shakti III

An experimental boosted fission device that used reactor grade Plutonium for its primary with a yield of 0.3 kt. This test device was used to test only the primary stage. It did not contain any tritium required to boost the fission. This test was designed to study the possibility of using reactor grade plutonium in warheads and also to prove India's expertise in controlling and damping a nuclear explosion in order to achieve a low (sub-kiloton) yield.

Shakti IV

A 0.5 kt experimental device. The test's only purpose was to collect data about the explosion process and to study the performance of various bomb components.

Shakti V

A 0.2 kt experimental device that used U-233, an isotope of uranium that is not found in nature but is produced in India's fast breeder reactors that consume Thorium. This device too was used to collect data.

Production and preparation of devices

Three laboratories of the DRDO were involved in designing, testing and producing components like advanced detonators, the implosion systems, high-voltage trigger systems. They were also responsible for weaponization, systems engineering, aerodynamics, safety interlocks and flight trials. The nuclear devices were moved from their vaults at the BARC complex in the early hours of 1 May, around 3 a.m., by four Indian Army trucks under the command of Col. Umang Kapur. They were transported to Mumbai airport and flown at dawn in an Indian Air Force AN-32 transport plane to the Jaisalmer military base. An Army convoy of four trucks transported the explosive devices to Pokhran. Three trips were required to complete the delivery of the devices and associated equipment. The devices were delivered directly to the device preparation building in the range which was designated as the 'Prayer Hall'.

The tests were organized into two groups that were fired separately, with all devices in a group fired at the same time. The first group consisted of the thermonuclear device (Shakti I), the fission device (Shakti II), and a

sub-kiloton device (Shakti III). The remaining two sub-kiloton devices made up the second group (Shakti IV & V). It was decided that the first group consisting of three devices would be tested on 11 of May and the second group on 13 May. The thermonuclear device was placed in a shaft code named 'White House' (over 200 m deep), while the 'Taj Mahal' shaft (over 150 m deep) was assigned to the fission bomb, and 'Kumbhkaran' to the first sub-kiloton shot. The other two shafts for the second test series were designated NT 1 & NT 2. The first three devices were placed in their respective shafts on 10 May, the day before the tests. The shafts were L-shaped, with a horizontal chamber for the test device. The first device to be placed was the sub-kiloton device in the 'Kumbhkaran' shaft. The Army engineers sealed the shaft at around 8:30 PM. Then the thermonuclear device was lowered into the 'White House' shaft and sealing this shaft took until 4 a.m. the next morning. By then the fission device was being placed in the 'Taj Mahal' shaft. It was sealed at 7:30 a.m., just 90 minutes from the planned test time.

The actual timing of the tests depended on the local weather conditions. It was hot in the Pokhran desert in early May, it reached 43°C on the day of the test. But the critical factor was the wind. Although the tests were underground, they were shallow tests and the sealing of the shaft could not be guaranteed to be leak-proof (a number of shaft seal failures had occurred during tests by USA, USSR and UK despite the shafts being much deeper). Winds blowing toward inhabited areas, as occurred on the morning on 11 May were not acceptable. But by early afternoon the winds had died down and the scientists decided to go ahead with the tests. Dr. K. Santhanam of the DRDO, who was in charge of the test site preparations, gave the two keys that activated the test countdown to Dr. M. Vasudev, the range safety officer, who was responsible for verifying that all test indicators were normal. After checking the indicators, Vasudev handed one key each to a representative of BARC and the DRDO, who together unlocked the countdown system. At 3:45 p.m. the three devices were detonated.

Detonations

The three devices (Shakti I, II & III) were detonated simultaneously at 3:43:44.2 p.m. IST; 10:13:44.2 UTC +/-0.32 sec; as measured by international seismic monitors. Seismic data collected by stations outside India have placed the total magnitude of the first event at 5.3 (+/- 0.4), making it one of the largest seismic events in the world during the 24 hr period during which it occurred. The measured seismic center of the triple event was located at 27.0716 deg N latitude, and 71.7612 deg E longitude, which places it only 2.8 km from the 1974 test site (which was at 27.095 deg N, 71.752 deg E). The combined force of the three blasts lifted an area about the size of a cricket ground to a few metres above the earth kicking up dust and sand into the air. Three craters were sunk on the desert surface.

Just two days later on 13 May, at 12.21 p.m.IST 6:51 UTC, the two sub-kiloton devices were detonated underground. This event was not detected by any seismic stations as they were of very low yield.

With the five explosions, India declared the series of tests to be over.

Reactions to the tests

Reactions in India

Shortly after the tests, a press meet was convened at the Prime Minister's residence in New Delhi. Prime Minister Vajpayee appeared before the press corps and made the following short statement:

Today, at 1545 hours, India conducted three underground nuclear tests in the Pokhran range. The tests conducted today were with a fission device, a low yield device and a thermonuclear device. The measured yields are in line with expected values. Measurements have also confirmed that there was no release of radioactivity into the atmosphere. These were contained explosions like the experiment conducted in May 1974. I warmly congratulate the scientists and engineers who have carried out these successful tests. [6]

News of the tests were greeted with jubilation and large-scale approval by the society in India. The Bombay Stock Exchange registered significant gains. Newspapers and television channels praised the government for its bold decision; editorials were full of praise for the country's leadership and advocated the development of an operational

nuclear arsenal for the country's armed forces. The scientific establishment was thankful to the government for having been given the opportunity to prove their capabilities. More significantly, all doubts were erased from the minds of people who questioned India's nuclear capability after the testing in 1974.

U.N. Sanctions

The reactions from abroad started immediately after the tests were advertised. The United Nations issued a statement expressing its disappointment. On June 6, the United Nations Security Council adopted Resolution 1172 condemning the test and that of Pakistan's. The United States issued a strong statement condemning India and promised that sanctions would follow. The American establishment was embarrassed as there had been a serious intelligence failure in detecting the preparations for the test. Canada, which had earlier supplied the CIRUS nuclear reactor to India which was the source of plutonium for the 1974 tests, reassured the world that the CIRUS reactor was not in any way connected to the 1998 tests. China issued a vociferous condemnation calling upon the international community to exert pressure on India to sign the NPT and eliminate its nuclear arsenal. With India joining the group of countries possessing nuclear weapons, a new strategic dimension had emerged in Asia, particularly South Asia.

U.S. and Japanese reaction

In keeping with its preferred approach to foreign policy in recent decades, and in compliance with a 1994 anti-proliferation law, the United States imposed economic sanctions on India. The sanctions on India consisted of cutting off all assistance to India except humanitarian aid, banning the export of certain defense material and technologies, ending American credit and credit guarantees to India, and requiring the U.S. to oppose lending by international financial institutions to India.^[7]

Japan also imposed economic sanctions on India. The sanctions consisted of freezing all new loans and grants except for humanitarian aid to India. [8]

Some other nations also imposed sanctions on India, primarily in the form of suspension of foreign aid and government-to-government credit lines. [9] However, the overall effect on India's economy and technological progress was marginal. Most nations did not sanction India, and India's exports and imports together constituted only 4% of its GDP, with U.S. trade accounting for only 10% of this total. Far more significant were the restrictions on lending imposed by the United States and its representatives on international finance bodies. Most of the sanctions were lifted within five years.

Support for India

However, other nuclear powers, such as Israel, France and Russia, refrained from condemning India.

Israel issued a statement 'praising' India's tests and declaring that India's reasons for carrying out nuclear tests were the same as Israel's. [10].

China

The tests "seriously" concerned China but ultimately refrained to gave criticism to India on May 12. [11] The next day, the Chinese Foreign Ministry issued the statement clearly stating that "it shocked and strongly condemned" the Indian nuclear tests and called for the international community to "adopt a unified stand and strongly demand that India immediate stop development of nuclear weapons". [12] China further rejected India's stated rationale "totally unreasonable", that it needs nuclear capabilities to counter a Chinese threat. [12] In a meeting with Masayoshi Takemura of Democratic Party of Japan, Foreign Minister of the People's Republic of China Qian Qichen quoted in television: "India's nuclear tests were a "serious matter," particularly because they were conducted in light of the fact that more than 140 countries have signed the Comprehensive Test Ban Treaty. It is even more unacceptable that India claims to have conducted the tests to counter what it called a "China threat". [12] On 24 November 1998, the Chinese Embassy, New Delhi issued a formal statement:

(sic).... But regrettably, India conducted nuclear tests last May, which has run against the contemporary historical trend and seriously affected peace and stability in South Asia. Pakistan also conducted nuclear tests later on. India's nuclear tests have not only led to the escalation of tensions between India and Pakistan and provocation of nuclear tests have not only led to the escalation of tensions between India and Pakistan and provocation of nuclear arms races in South Asia, but also dealt a heavy blow to international nuclear disarmament and the global nonproliferation regime. It is only natural that India's nuclear tests have met with extensive condemnation and aroused serious concern from the international communit

—Chinese Embassy, New Delhi, source^[13]

Pakistan

The most vehement reaction to India's nuclear test was Pakistan's. Great ire was raised in Pakistan, which issued a severe statement blaming India for instigating a nuclear arms race in the region. Pakistan Prime Minister Navaz Sharif vowed that his country would give a suitable reply to the Indians. The day after the first tests, Pakistan Minister of Foreign Affairs Captain (retired) Gohar Ayub Khan indicated that Pakistan was ready to conduct a nuclear test of its own. As he said: "[Pakistan] is prepared to match India, we have the capability ... We in Pakistan will maintain a balance with India in all fields", he said in an interview. "We are in a headlong arms race on the subcontinent."

Prime Minister Navaz Sharif was much more subdued, refusing to say whether a test would be conducted in response: "We are watching the situation and we will take appropriate action with regard to our security", he said. Sharif sought to mobilize the entire Islamic world in support of Pakistan and criticized India for nuclear proliferation.

Given authorization by Prime minister Navaz Sharif, the Pakistan Atomic Energy Commission (PAEC) carried out nuclear testing under the codename *Chagai-I* on May 28, 1998 and *Chagai-II* on May 30, 1998. These six underground nuclear tests at the Chagai and Kharan test site were conducted just fifteen days after India's last test. The total yield of the tests were reported to be 40 kt (see codename: *Chagai-I*).

Pakistan's subsequent tests invited similar condemnations from multiple nations ranging from Argentina to Russia, the United Kingdom and the United States. [14] American president Bill Clinton was quoted as saying "Two wrongs don't make a right", criticizing Pakistan's tests as reactionary to India's Pokhran-II. [14] The United States, Japan, and a number of other states reacted by imposing economic sanctions on Pakistan.

Pakistan's leading nuclear physicist and one of the top scientists, Dr. Pervez Hoodbhoy, held India responsible for Pakistan's nuclear test experiments in Chagai. [15]

Test yields

The yields from the three tests on 11 May 1998 were put at 58 kilotons by the Bhabha Atomic Research Centre based on seismic data obtained at the test site 3 kilometres from the test shafts. The tests were defined as a complete success, and it was determined that all the devices and their components had performed flawlessly. To remove all doubts, the senior scientists involved in the Pokhran operations addressed the press on the 17th of May. In this press meet the scientists claimed that the fission device produced a yield of 15 kt and .3 kt was obtained from the low yield device. They also claimed that the thermonuclear device gave a total yield of 45 kt, 15 kt from the fission trigger and 30 kt from the fusion process and that the theoretical yield of the device (200 kt) was reduced to 45 kt in order to minimize seismic damage to villages near the test range. The village closest to the test range, Khetolai, was a mere 5 kilometres away. Neutral assessment by western scholars show that Shakti-I was 32 Kt as claimed to 43Kt, however results of Shakti-2 was 13Kt according to western scholars as claimed by BARC. [16]

Recent allegations

In 2009 it was widely reported that a retired atomic scientist, K. Santhanam who was closely associated with the

tests, claims that the 1998 tests were not as successful as the then BJP government had claimed they were. ^{[17][18]} These claims were widely dismissed in India, including a specific dismissal by A. P. J. Abdul Kalam, who cited evidence and data to prove his point. ^[19]

Legacy

May 11 has been officially declared as National Technology Day in India to commemorate the first of the five tests that were carried out on May 11, 1998. The day was officially signed by the then Prime Minister of India. The day is celebrated by giving awards to various individuals and industries in the field of science and industry. [20]

Images

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External links

- Nuclear Weapons Archive: Operation Shakti (http://nuclearweaponarchive.org/India/IndiaShakti.html)
- 'India aborted nuclear bomb plans in 1994' (http://news.in.msn.com/national/article. aspx?cp-documentid=1320521)
- India's Pathway to Pokhran II: The Prospects and Sources of New Delhi's Nuclear Weapons Program (http://www.jstor.org/stable/2539297?seq=1)

Books

 How the CIA was Fooled written by Raj Chengappa (http://www.india-today.com/itoday/17051999/books. html)

Chagai-I

Chagai-I		
The mountain is seen raised above as the chain reaction builds up by the devices.		
Information		
Country	Pakistan	
Test site	Chagai Weapon-testing laboratories, Baluchistan Province	
Period	May 1998	
Number of tests	5	
Test type	Underground tests	
Device type	Fission/Fusion	
Max. yield	Total yield ~40 kilotons of TNT (unknown operator:	
	u'strong' TJ) See note ^[1]	
Navigation		
Previous test	Kirana-I	
Next test	Chagai-II	

Chagai-I was the codename referring to the five underground nuclear tests conducted by Pakistan at 15:15hrs (3:15 pm PST) on 28 May 1998. The tests were performed in a secret Chagai weapon-testing laboratories, located in the Chagai District of the Baluchistan Province of Pakistan.

The *Chagai-I*— the first public nuclear tests operation of Pakistan— is considered a milestone in the history of Pakistan that was conducted in a direct response to India's second nuclear tests, *Operation Shakti*, on 11 and 13 May of 1998. Nuclear weapon testings of both states resulted in a variety of economic sanctions on each other by number of major powers, particularly the United States and Japan. With the performance of the simultaneous atomic testing of the five nuclear devices, Pakistan, thus became the seventh nuclear power in the world to successfully develop and publicly test nuclear weapons, despite the international fury.

Birth of Pakistan's atomic weapons programme

The country's uneasy relationship with India, Afghanistan and the former Soviet Union explains its policy to to become a nuclear power as part of its defence strategy. [2] Since their independence from United Kingdom on August 1947, India and Pakistan had fought two declared wars over the disputed Kashmir territory; first war being fought in 1947-48 and second being fought in 1965.

Economic embargo placed by the United States, alliance with the West endangering the national security of the country, [3] and the offset the country's conventional inferiority against India and to counter the advancing Indian nuclear programme after 1965, the country put efforts to launch a classified and clandestine atomic bomb project. [4] Shortly after the war, the country acquired its first research reactor, *PARR-I*, from the United States and a international research institute, Pinstesh, located in Nilore city in the Islamabad Capital Venue. In 1969, after successfully negotiating with the United Kingdom Atomic Energy Authority (UKAEA) to supply Pakistan with a nuclear fuel reprocessing site capable of extracting 360g of weapons-grade plutonium annually. [4] The PAEC chose five top scientists to receive training to gain expertise in nuclear fuel cycle as well as weapon-grade and reactor-gradeplutonium. [4] Agreements were made with Canada, France and the British consortium companies to expand the nuclear power infrastructure as part of the peaceful nuclear policy. [2]

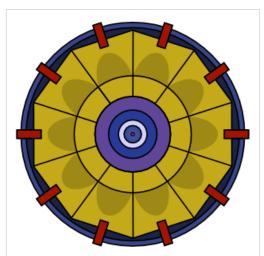
The 1971 war and atomic bomb projects

The main turning point in Pakistan's decision-making was the 1971 war with India which led the loss of provisional state, East-Pakistan, which was succeeded as Bangladesh. Lasting only less than two weeks, around 93,000 personnel of Pakistan Armed Forces were taken as POWs by India as well as the 5,000 sq mi (13,000 km2) country's territory which held by India after the war. Although the territory and the POWs were returned to Pakistan, it left deep scars in Pakistan's civil society as well as leaving the political and military misery. ^{[5][6]} The armed liberation war and the 1971 war was an unforgettable experience and lesson to political and military establishment. For Pakistan, it was a decisive defeat, a psychological setback ^[6] that came from a defeat at the hands of intense rival India. Pakistan lost half its territory, a significant portion of its economy and its influential geo-political role in South Asia. ^[6] At foreign fronts, Pakistan failed to gather any moral and foreign support even from her long-standing allies, particularly the United States, Turkey and the People's Republic of China. ^[7] Since the Partition, the physical existence Pakistan seemed to be in great mortal danger and quite obviously could rely on no one but itself. ^[7]

The war played a crucial and groundbreaking role in the hearts of top scientists of the country who witnessed the war and control of remaining parts of the country was given to Zulfikar Ali Bhutto as country's elected Prime minister. [8] Roughly two weeks after the disaster, Zulfikar Ali Bhutto called for a secret meeting of top and senior scientists in Multan on 20 January 1972 which later elevated as "Multan meeting". [9] There, Zulfikar Bhutto authorised, initiated, and orchestrated the scientific research on atomic weapons bringing all the nuclear infrastructure under one chain of command. [10] Zulfikar Ali Bhutto, who was "obsessed" [11] with Indian nuclear efforts, made extremely critical decisions and aggressively supervised the policy implementation of the atomic bomb project. [12] In 1972, Bhutto appointed Abdus Salam as his science adviser and at same time, called nuclear engineer Munir Ahmad Khan from International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA) to lead the program administratively while Bhutto controlled the program as the political administrative figure. On November 1972, Bhutto assisted by Salam and Munir Khan, inaugurated the first commercial nuclear power, Kanupp-I in Karachi, Sindh Province. [13] Along with Prof. Salam and Munir Ahmad Khan, the diameter of scientific research was expanded throughout the country. [13] In PAEC, Salam established research divisions and groups that took charge to carry out the physics and mathematical calculations regarding to the development of the weapon. [13] The atomic bomb project at an early stage was directed by Abdus Salam as he was the founding director of Theoretical Physics Group (denoted as TPG) and the and Mathematical Physics Group (denoted as MPG) at the PAEC to conduct mathematical and physics calculations regarding the fission devices.^[13]

On March 1974, the research on physical developments were initiated by Munir Khan and Abdus Salam after chairing a meeting in Pinstech Institute. [14] At this meeting the word "bomb" was never used but the participants fully understood the nature of the work. This laid the foundation of "Wah Group Scientist" (denoted as WGS) with U.S. educated mechanical engineer Hafeez Qureshi as its director-general. [14] During the same time, a new Directorate of Technical Development (DTD) was set up to coordinate work on the various specialised groups working in PAEC on the design, development, and testing of nuclear weapons under chemical engineer dr. Shaikh Zaman. [14] The far more complex assembly methods of implosion-bomb design was favoured over the relatively simple gun-type method, and the productions of reactor and weapon-grade and separation of weapon-grade plutonium isotopes were massive undertakings by the PAEC.

The atomic bomb project was accelerated on May 1974 after India surprising Pakistan and the rest of the world after announcing the first explosion of nuclear device, Smiling Buddha in Pokhran Test Range of Indian Army. [15] The goal to developed the atomic bombs became impetus after launching the uranium enrichment project, the Kahuta Project. [15] In 1974, Abdul Qadeer Khan who was then working as a senior scientist at the URENCO Group directed a letter through the Embassy in Amsterdam, and officially joined the atomic bomb project in 1976. [15] The Corps of Engineers under directorship of the General Zahid Ali Akbar, built the Engineering Research Laboratories (ERL) for that purpose and situated a Abdul Qadeer Khan and his team at ERL for commercial and weapon-grade uranium enrichment. [15] Finally in 1978, weapon designing and calculations were completed and a milestone in isotope separation was reached by the PAEC. In 1981, the physical development of the atomic bomb project was completed and the ERL successfully enriched the uranium above



All five atomic devices were the Implosion-type similar to one in the illustration. The government never released the details of the technical aspects of the tested weapons as a public domain due to its sensitivity.

5% and produces first batch of HEU fuel rods.^[15] On On 11 March 1983, a milestone was achieved when PAEC led by Munir Ahmad Khan carried out the first cold test of a working nuclear device, codename *Kirana-I*.^[16] This was followed by 24 more cold tests by PAEC in which different weapon designs were tested and improved. After decades of covertly building and developing the atomic weapons program and the related atomic, Pakistan under the leadership of Prime Minister Nawaz Sharif, tested its five underground nuclear devices in Chagai Hills.^[17]

Tests planning and preparation

Plans to conduct an atomic test started in 1976 when Pakistan Atomic Energy Commission (PAEC) research scientists frequently visiting the area to find a suitable location for an underground nuclear test, preferably a granite mountain. After a long survey, the PAEC scientists chose the granite mountain Koh Kambaran in the Ras Koh Hills range in the Chagai Division of Baluchistan in 1978. Its highest point rises to a height of 3,009 metres (sources vary). The then-martial law administrator of the province, General Rahimuddin Khan, spearheaded the construction of the potential test sites throughout the 1980s.

In March 2005, the former Pakistan Prime minister Benazir Bhutto said Pakistan may have had an atomic weapon long before, and her father had told her from his prison cell that preparations for a nuclear test had been made in 1977, and he expected to have an atomic test of a nuclear device in August 1977. However, the plan was moved on to December 1977 and later it was delayed indefinitely. In an interview with Geo TV, Samar Mubarakmand of the Pakistan Atomic Energy Commission, has said that the team of Pakistan Atomic Energy Commission developed the design of atomic bomb in 1978 and had successfully conducted a cold test after developing the first atomic bomb in 1983. [18]

The exact origin of the name is unknown, but it is often attributed to the weapon-testing laboratory leader dr. Ishfaq Ahmad as a reference to the Chagai Hills, in spite of no nuclear experiments were performed at the vicinity of this site. It is generally believed that the codename was given in the honour of the Chagai Hills in an attempt that it would not attract international and national attention of the world at where the exact tests were actually performed. On April 2010, Nawaz Sharif, at a public function to celebrate nuclear blasts, said the then-U.S President Bill Clinton offered a package of US\$5 billion for not carrying out nuclear blasts and warned about imposition of ban otherwise. Nawaz said that he was in Kazakhstan in a visit to meet the President, Nursultan Nazarbayev, when India tested its nuclear device. The entire nation was united in favour of nuclear blasts and Mushahid Hussain was the first person who advice that nuclear blasts should be carried out in reply of Indian nuclear explosions. In 1999, in an interview given to Pakistani and Indian journalists in Islamabad, Sharif had said: If India had not exploded the bomb, Pakistan would not have done so. Once New Delhi did so, We [Sharif Government] had no choice because of public pressure.

Test predictions and yields

The PAEC carried out five underground nuclear tests at the Chagai test site at 3:16 p.m. (PST) on the afternoon of 28 May 1998. [14][24] The observation post was established about 10km (about ~6.21 miles) from the test vicinity, with members of Mathematics groups and Theoretical Physics Group remained charged with calculating the yields. Calculating an accurate and precise yields are very hard to calculate even in a control environmental system, with many different possible ways the yields can be determined. The questions of politics also further disputed the exact figures. The total maximum yield of the tests was reported to be ~40 kilotons of TNT equivalent, with the largest (boosted) device yielding 30–36 kilotons. [25] However, Western seismologists remains unconvinced and estimated the yield of the largest device to be no greater than 12 kilotons, leading U.S. nuclear weapons expert David Albright also remains skeptical about Pakistan's claims. [26] U.S. scholars, based on the data they received from their computers, claimed that the possible yield ranged from 12-20kt as opposed to ~40kt by the Pakistan Government. [27]

The PAEC's mathematics division made the scientific data to public domain and published seismic activities, mathematical graphs, and mathematical formulas used to calculate the yield. The equations obtained by Western observer, Terry Wallace (who applied on both India and Pakistan tests) follows:

$$Mb = 4.10 + 0.75 log_{10}Y$$

The scientific publications were continued to be appear as public domain, the explosion measured 5.54 degrees on the Richter Scale, supporting the Pakistan government's claim. [28] After the tests, Prime minister Nawaz Sharif addressed the nation via Pakistan's government channel PTV and congratulated the entire nation and days of celebration followed throughout Pakistan. [29][30]

From scientific data received by PAEC, it appears that Pakistan did not test a thermonuclear device, as opposed to India. According to Ishfaq Ahmad, PAEC had no plan to developed a three-stage thermonuclear device because of economic reasons, even though back in 1974, Riazuddin did propose such a plan to Abdus Salam, Director of Theoretical Physics Group that time. From the outset, PAEC concentrated on developing smaller but tactical nuclear weapons easily installed in PAF's aircraft, naval combatant vessels, and missiles. [31]

Shortly after the tests, former chairman and technical director Munir Ahmad Khan famously quoted: "These boosted devices are like a half way stage towards a thermonuclear bomb. They use elements of the thermonuclear process, and are effectively stronger atom bombs..... Pakistan has had a nuclear capability since 1984 and all the first five devices were made with the HEU. [32] On other hand, Abdul Qadeer Khan further provided technical details on fission devices while addressing the local media as he puts it: "All boosted fission devices using U²³⁵ on 28 May. None of these explosions were thermonuclear.. Pakistan is currently doing research and can do a fusion test if only asked. But it depends on the economical circumstances, political situation and the decision of the government...". [32] As opposed to India's thermonuclear approach, Dr. N.M. Butt, senior scientist, stated that "PAEC built a sufficient number of neutron bombs— a battlefield weapon that is essentially a low yield device".

Development and test teams

Pakistan Atomic Energy Commission (PAEC)

- Ishfaq Ahmad, Chairman of the Pakistan Atomic Energy Commission (PAEC).
- Samar Mubarakmand, Member (Technical), Pakistan Atomic Energy Commission.
- Anwar Ali, Directorate of Technical Equipment (DTE).
- Hafeez Qureshi, Head of Directorate of Technical Development (DTD)
- N.A. Javed, Director of Directorate of Quality Assurance (DQA).
- Irfan Burney, Director of Directorate of Technical Procurement (DTP).
- I.A. Bhatty, Director of Directorate of Industrial Liaison (DIL)
- Tariq Salija, Director of the Radiation and Isotope Applications Division (RIAD).
- Muhammad Jameel, Director of Directorate of Science and Engineering Services (DSES)
- Muhammad Arshad, the Chief Scientific Officer (CSO).

Kahuta Research Laboratories (KRL)

- Abdul Qadeer Khan, Director General of Khan Research Laboratories (KRL).
- M. Nasim Khan, Director of Material Science and Engineering Division (MSE).
- S. Mansoor Ahmed, Director of Uranium Enrichment Technology Division (UET).
- Fakhr Hashmi, Director of Molecular-Laser Enrichment Technology Division (MLET).
- Javed Ashraf Mirza, Director of Control and Guidance Division (CGD).
- Tasneem M. Shah, Director of Computational Fluid Dynamics Division (CFD).

Pakistan Army Corps of Engineers (PACE)

• LGen Zulfikar Ali Khan — Engineer-in-Chief of the Pakistan Army Corps of Electrical and Mechanical Engineering and the System and Combat Engineering Division of the Pakistan Army Corps of Engineers

Reaction in Pakistan

The Directorate of Technical Development of PAEC which carried out the Chagai tests issued the following statement soon after the tests:^[33]

The mission has, on the one hand, boosted the morale of the Pakistani nation by giving it an honorable position in the nuclear world, while on the other hand it validated scientific theory, design and previous results from cold tests. This has more than justified the creation and establishment of DTD more than 20 years back.

Through these critical years of nuclear device development, the leadership contribution changed hands from Munir Ahmad Khan to Ishfaq Ahmad and finally to Mubarakmand.

These gifted scientists and engineers along with a highly dedicated team worked logically and economically to design, produce and test an extremely rugged device for the nation which enable the Islamic Republic of Pakistan from strength to strength. [34]

Effects on Science in Pakistan

On this day, Pakistani scientists earned national renown in Pakistan, with Media of Pakistan projecting their biographies all over the country. Senior scientists and engineers were invited by a number of academic institutes and universities to deliver lectures on mathematical, theoretical, nuclear and particle physics. The institutes bestowed hundreds of silver and gold medallions and honorary doctorates to the scientists and engineers in 1998. Professor Abdus Salam (1926–1996) was also celebrated in Pakistan and Government of Pakistan released a commemorative stamp in the honour of Salam. In 1998, the theory of electroweak and its discovery two decade ago by Salam, was also celebrated nationwide for which Abdus Salam was awarded the Physics's Nobel Prize in

1979. In 1999, Government established Abdus Salam's museum in National Center for Physics, where his contribution to scientific programs and efforts were publicly recorded and televised. The 28 May has been officially declared as *Youm-e-Takbeer* (Day of Greatness) to commemorate and remembrance of the first five tests that were carried out in 28 May, and as well as National Science Day in Pakistan to honour and remembrance the scientific efforts led by scientists to developed the devices. The day was officially signed by the then-Prime Minister of Pakistan Nawaz Sharif. The day is celebrated by giving awards (such as Chagai-Medal) to various individuals and industries in the field of science and industries. The Nawaz Sharif Government also established the *Chagai-I Medal* and it was first awarded to the scientists of Pakistan in 1998 who were witnessed the tests. The graphite mountains are visibly shown in the gold medallion and equal ribbon stripes of yellow, red and white. [38]

Global Reactions

Pakistan's tests were generally condemned by the Non-OIC international community. [39] The United Nations Security Council adopted *Resolution 1172* condemning the both Indian test and that of Pakistan's. Brazil declared that it "deplores" Pakistan's decision to carry out the tests. [39] In an official statement on 28 May 1998, the French Foreign Ministry denounced India's five nuclear tests. [39] French President Jacques Chirac implored Pakistan to abstain from further testing. [39] Iran, Pakistan's strategic ally and neighbor also criticized the tests, with a formal statement by. [39] Robin Cook, Britain's foreign secretary, expressed dismay at the tests. Kofi Annan, the secretary general of the United Nations, deplored the tests saying that "they exacerbate tension in an already difficult relationship". [39]

The United Nations Security Council condemned Pakistan's five nuclear tests. "The council strongly deplores the underground nuclear tests conducted by Pakistan despite international calls for restraint," said a statement from Kenya's Njugumu Moses Mahugu, president of the 15-member council. [39] While France, Israel, and Russian globally supported Indian's stand on testing nuclear devices. [39] Pakistan founded difficult to gather support even from its long term allies. Pakistan's strategic allies Turkey, Germany, and People's Republic of China did not supported Pakistan while neither issued any statement.

The tests brought Pakistan in an extensive Foreign policy deadlock, with no foreign support was found. Pakistan, since 1971 disaster, failed to gather any support and a Foreign policy turmoil continued until Navaz Sharif was deposed in 1999.

At a news conference 28 May 1998, United States President Bill Clinton condemned Pakistan's nuclear tests saying, "I deplore the decision." He also promised to reprimand Islamabad with the same sanctions the United States has imposed on India." Clinton also signed off on economic sanctions against Pakistan that prohibited billions of dollars in loans from multilateral institutions. [39] NATO said that the tests were a "dangerous development" and also warned of sanctions. [40]

Economic effects

The United Nations Security Council adopted *Resolution 1172* condemning the Indian test and that of Pakistan's. United States, Japan, Australia, Sweden, Canada, and International Monetary Fund, imposed economical sanctions on Pakistan. The Japanese government had called its Ambassador from Pakistan, and suspend its foreign relations with Pakistan. During the time of nuclear testing, it was reported that Pakistan had only US\$ 1 Billion in its national treasure, and India had reported by be \$29Billion in its State Bank. By comparing to Pakistan's economy, the sanctions imposed by Resolution 1172, was exerted only with marginal effects on India's economy and technological progress. The IMF had suspend \$3Billion aid to Pakistan, and the country's economy was near facing the serious economic default. Sartaj Aziz, an economist and Foreign Minister, and his economics team then briefed Nawaz Sharif that if the economy reaches to the financial default, the terms for the CTBT and NPT would be exercised more tougher on Pakistan, if Pakistan seeks a Bailout plan from the World Bank, the IMF, and the Asian Development Bank, or even the United States.

The economy was already deteriorated, Aziz's team was quickly taking the steps to control the economy. Prime minister Sharif ordered his Finance minister, Sartaj Aziz, to freeze the low foreign exchange reserves. Aziz then asserted that such act would lead to an extreme financial default. Insead, Aziz offered the investors to sell their shares at rate of 46PKR, which was 2PKR was more that time, to the Government in order to avoid the financial default. This resulted in improving the control of the economy and Nawaz Sharif government then gained the control of the economy. Sharif then suspended his capitalist policies and made a move to introduced the socialist economics policies, previously introduced by former Prime minister Zulfikar Ali Bhutto in 1970s. Sartaz Aziz was replaced by Sharif as he opposed Sharif's plans to divert an economic recession by taking such steps. Aziz was made Foreign minister and was succedeed by Dr. Ishaq Dar, a career professor of economist who took this daunting charge.

In all, the United States had suspend the economical aid to the Pakistan, but continued the limited economical aid to Pakistan on humanitarian basis. Increasingly, the composition of assistance to Pakistan shifted away from grants toward loans repayable in foreign exchange. All new U.S. additional economic assistance to Pakistan was suspended in May 1998. The sanctions were lifted by President George W. Bush after Pakistan President General Musharraf allied Pakistan with the U.S. in its war on terror. Having improved its finances, the government refused further IMF assistance, and consequently the IMF program was ended.

Historical Overview

- Zulfikar Ali Bhutto, Prime minister and colloquially known as the father of nuclear weapons programme.
- Navaz Sharif, Pakistan's Prime Minister at that time,
- Abdus Salam, embarked the nuclear weapons program and director of Theoretical Physics Division
- Riazuddin, designer of Pakistan's thermo-nuclear devices.
- Asghar Qadir, led mathematical calculations involved in the nuclear devices.
- Munir Ahmad Khan, technical director and developed Pakistan's nuclear fuel cycle, nuclear weapons and energy programs.
- Ishfaq Ahmad, nuclear weapon designer and the Chairman of PAEC at that time.
- Abdul Qadeer Khan, developed the Centrifuge technology used in enriching uranium hexafluoride gas for Pakistan.
- · Samar Mubarakmand, Director of Fast-Neutron Physics Group and supervised the atomic tests at Chagai
- Operation Shakti India's nuclear test on 11 May 1998
- Chagai-II- Pakistan's second nuclear test on 30 May 1998
- Pakistan and Nuclear Weapons
- · List of countries with nuclear weapons

External links

• Video of Pakistan's first Nuclear Test [43]

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Kharan Desert

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The Kharan Desert (Urdu: خاران صحرا also known as the Sandy Desert) is a sand desert situated in the Balochistan province of Pakistan.Kharan desert is Pakistan's second nuclear test site, and the second nuclear test — Codename Chagai-IIChagai-II — was conducted and supervised by the Pakistan Atomic Energy Commission (PAEC) in May 30, 1998. The desert is characterized by extremes of altitude and extreme temperatures in the desert. The Kharan Desert consists of shifting sand dunes with an underlying pebble-conglomerate floor. The moving dunes reach heights of between 15 and 30 meters. Level areas between the dunes are a hard-topped pan when dry and a treacherous, sandy-clay mush when wet. The altitudes of deserts slope from about 1,000m in the north to about 250m on in the south-west. Average annual rainfall throughout these deserts is well under 100 mm. The desert includes areas of inland drainage and dry lakes (hamuns). The area is known particularly for its constant mirages and sudden severe sandstorms. Chagai-IIChagai-IISatellite image of Kharan Desert Information Country Pakistan Test site Kharan Desert Period May 1998 Number of tests 1~2 Test type Underground nuclear testingUnderground tests Device type Fission/Fusion Max. yield 40 TNT equivalentkilotons of TNT (unknown operator: u'strong' TJ) Navigation Previous test Chagai-I Next test NoneChagai-II was the codename of the second Atomic testsatomic test performed and conducted on 1310hrs (1:10 p.m.) (Pakistan Standard TimePST) on 30 May 1998 by Pakistan. It was the second tests performed two days after the first tests were conducted on 28 May and were conducted as part of the Tit for tattit-for-tat policy. Unlike the Ras Koh HillsChagai weapon-testing laboratories, the tests were performed in an open test site, the Kharan weapon-testing laboratories. The initial goals were to tests the new designs of the weapon rather than studying the effects and were differed from the first tests as the tests were primary conducted by Pakistan Pakistan Atomic Energy CommissionAtomic Energy Commission, with the Pakistan Armed Forcesarmed forces' engineering formations having only a supporting role. The single or two device was performed and was a boosted weapon-grade plutonium device as against the first tests that contained only uranium devices. With the performance of the tests made it sum total of six devices having been performed by Pakistan in 1998. Test preparationsThe weapon-testing laboratories selections and test sites were initiated by PAEC under Munir Ahmad

Kharan Desert 241

Khan. A mathematical and Three-dimensional spacethree-dimensional space Geological surveysurvey was commenced by nuclear physicist dr. Ishfaq Ahmad assisted by seismologist dr. Ahsan Mubarak.Azam, Rai Muhammad Saleh (June 2000). "When Mountains Move" (in English) (html). Dr Rai Muhammad Saleh Azam, professor of Political Science at Sargodha University. Karachi, Sindh Province of Pakistan: The Nation (1999) and Defence Journal of Pakistan (2000). p. 1. . Retrieved 8 May 2012. The PAEC officials met with Prime minister of PakistanPrime minister Zulfikar Ali Bhutto to arrange the preparations and decided to bring the role of armed forces to provide supplies and logistical support. After the meeting, Bhutto sent a classified telegram to Brigadier Muhammad Sarfraz, Chief of Staff at the V Corps (Pakistan)V Corps stationed in Quetta, Balochistan Province of Pakistan.Brigadier Sarfraz was tasked with the arranging an army helicopter, Mil Mi-17, for civilian scientists from the PAEC; Brigadier Sarfraz was later posted as deputy Engineer-in-Chief (Pakistan Army)E-in-C at the General Headquarters (Pakistan Army)Army Combatant Headquarters in Rawalpindi. In 1977, Brigadier Sarfraz was summoned by Chief Martial Law AdministratorCMLA and Chief of Army Staff (Pakistan)Chief of Army Staff General Muhammad Zia-ul-HaqZia-ul-Haq and tasked him with creating the special military engineering formations in 1977. The PAEC officials readily agreed that the secondary tests would be scientific in nature with armed forces playing the engineering roles. The Pakistan Army Corps of Electrical and Mechanical EngineeringSpecial Development Works (SDW) was given an immediate commission, having the members from military engineering formations, it directly reported to Chief of Army Staff. Its first commander was Brigadier Sarfraz who entrusted with the task of preparing the weapon-testing laboratories and sites. The SDW later elevated as a nuclear variant of the Pakistan Army's famous Frontier Works Organisation (FWO), and commanded by Brigadier Sarfraz since its given commission. The weapon-testing laboratories at Kharan had consisted of 24 cold test sites, 46 short tunnels and 35 underground accommodations for troops and command, control and monitoring facilities. The site was 300 by 200 feet and was L-shaped horizontal shafts in the testing labs. The weapon-testing laboratories had an array of extensive cables, sensors and monitoring stations. THe SDW took 2-3 years to prepare and were completed in 1980, before Pakistan acquired the capability to physically develop a atomic bomb.. The weapon-testing labs were located at Kharan, in a desert valley between the Ras Koh Hills to the north and Siahan Range to the south. Carey Sublette (2 January 2002). "Historical Background: Preparing to Build the Bomb". Carey Sublette of the nuclear weapon archive. . Retrieved 2011. Subsequently, the Chagai Hills-Ras Koh-Kharan areas became restricted entry zones and were closed to the public. After the Brigadie Sarfraz was sent back the Army Headquarters, Lieutenant-General Zahid Ali Akbar Khan was appointed as Engineer-in-Chief (Pakistan Army)Engineer-in-Chief of the Pakistan Army Corps of Engineers (PACE) and the Military Engineering Service, as well as the test commander of the Special Works Development (SDW).Rehman, Shahidur, Long Road to Chagai: The nuclear development under Army: General Zahid Ali, Printwise Publications, Islamabad (1999) The modernization of the tests labs were undertaken by Frontier Works OrganisationFrontier Works Organization (FWO); the FWO uncredited work in the construction of the weapon-testings labs in Kharan Desert, and had supervised the complete construction on the sites along with SDW. The construction was supervised by the Pakistan Army Engineering CorpsPakistan Army Corps of Engineers's combat engineer then-Lieutenant-Colonel Zulfikar Ali Khan and the Pakistan Atomic Energy Commission under the leadership of Chairman Mr. Munir Ahmad Khan who co-assigned this task to Member (Technical), Pakistan Atomic Energy CommissionPAEC, Ishfaq Ahmad. Tests experiments and prediction The tests were conducted and performed on 30 May 30 1998 at 1310Hourhrs (1:10 p.m.) (Pakistan Standard TimePST). The device was a miniaturized Boosted fission weaponboosted-fission Weapons-grade#Weapons-grade plutoniumweapon-grade plutonium device Nuclear weapon yieldyielding 60% of the first tests performed two days earlier. The yield of a nuclear device was reported to be 18-20 kilotonnekt of TNT equivalent. On the other hand, the international observers estimated their calculation based on the results and data their received from their computer and approximating the figure at mere 2Kt.http://books.google.co.in/books?id=vAsAAAAAMBAJ&pg=PA24&dq=chagai+claimed+yield&hl=en&sa=X&ei=LMU4T4XB crater now takes the place of what used to be a small hillock in the rolling desert, marking the ground zero of the nuclear test there.. The Pakistan Atomic Energy Commission (or PAEC) had tested one or more plutonium nuclear

devices, and the results and data of the devices were successful as it was expected by the Pakistan's mathematicians

Kharan Desert 242

and seismologists. "Nuclear Tests:§The Plutonium Device". Federation of American Scientists (FAS) and Pakistan Atomic Scientists Foundation (PASF). December 11, 2002. . Retrieved 2011. The devices were successfully tested and supervised by PAEC's Chief Technical Member (CTM) Dr. Samar Mubarakmand.. Cultural legacyMay 28 has been officially declared as Youm-e-Takbeer (Day of Greatness) and as well as National Science Day in Pakistan to commemorate and remembrance of the first five tests that were carried out in May 28, 1998. "13th Youm-e-Takbeer to be observed today". 28 May 2011. Retrieved 2011. The day was officially signed by the then-Prime Minister of Pakistan Nawaz Sharif. The day is celebrated by giving awards (such as Chagai-Medal) to various individuals and industries in the field of science and industries. "Youm-e-Takbeer being marked today". 28 May 2011. . Retrieved 2011. Government also established the Chagai-I Medal and it was first awarded to the scientists of Pakistan in 1998 who were witnessed the tests. "Republic of Pakistan: Chagai-I Medal". 28 May 2011. . Retrieved 2011. The graphite mountains are visibly shown in the gold medallion and equal ribbon stripes of yellow, red and white. Preparations and Test TeamsPakistan Atomic Energy CommissionSamar Mubarakmand, Member (Technical), Pakistan Atomic Energy Commission. Muhammad Hafeez Qureshi, Head of Directorate of Technical Development (DTD) Irfan Burney, Director of Directorate of Technical Procurement (DTP). Tariq Salija, Director of the Radiation and Istope Applications Division (RIAD). Muhammad Jameel, Director of Directorate of Science and Engineering Services (DSES) Muhammad Arshad, the Chief Scientific Officer (CSO). Tasneem M. ShahTasneem Shah, Director of Computational Fluid Dynamics Division, A. Q. Khan Research LaboratoriesKRL, (CFDD) Pakistan Army Corps of EngineersLieutenant General Zulfikar Ali Khan Engineer-in-Chief (Pakistan Army)Engineer-in-Chief of the System EngineeringSystem and Combat Engineering Division of the Pakistan ArmyPakistan Army Corps of EngineersReferencesExternal links Chagai-II Test on YouTube "Comparison of India's and Pakinstan's nuclear tests and the 30 May, 1998 Afghanistan earthquake" (php). Broadband Seismic Data Collection Center. Broadband Seismic Data Collection Center, Pakistan Atomic Scientist Federation (PASF), Pakistan Nuclear Society, Pakistan Seismic Department (PAEC), and Pakistan Meteorological Department. 2010-11-23. Retrieved 2011. "KNET recording of second Pakistani nuclear test waveforms" (php). Broadband Seismic Data Collection Center. Broadband Seismic Data Collection Center, Pakistan Atomic Scientist Federation (PASF), Pakistan Nuclear Society, Pakistan Seismic Department (PAEC), and Pakistan Meteorological Department. 2010-11-23. Retrieved 2011.

Other armed engagements

Indian integration of Junagadh

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Junagadh was a princely state of India, located in what is now Gujarat, outside but under the suzerainty of British India. In the independence and partition of British India of 1947, the 562 princely states were given a choice of whether to join the new Dominion of India or the newly formed state of Pakistan or to remain independent. The Nawab of Junagadh, Muhammad Mahabat Khanji III, a Muslim whose ancestors had ruled Junagadh and small principalities for some two hundred years, decided that Junagadh should become part of Pakistan, much to the displeasure of many of the people of the state, an overwhelming majority of whom were Hindus. The Nawab acceded to the Dominion of Pakistan on 15 September 1947, against the advice of Lord Mountbatten, arguing that Junagadh joined Pakistan by sea. History introduction at hellojunagadh.com: "On September 15, 1947, Nawab Mohammad Mahabat Khanji III of Junagadh, a princely state located on the south-western end of Gujarat and having no common border with Pakistan, chose to accede to Pakistan ignoring Mountbatten's views, arguing that Junagadh adjoined Pakistan by sea. The rulers of two states that were subject to the suzerainty of Junagadh Mangrol and Babariawad reacted by declaring their independence from Junagadh and acceding to India." The principality of Babariawad and Sheikh of Mangrol reacted by claiming independence from Junagadh and accession to India. When Pakistan accepted the Nawab's Instrument of Accession on 16 September, the Government of India was outraged that Muhammad Ali Jinnah could accept the accession of Junagadh despite his argument that Hindus and Muslims could not live as one nation, though this was a seen as a strategy to get a plebiscite held for the case of Kashmir which was a Muslim majority with a Hindu ruler.Rajmohan GandhiGandhi, Rajmohan (1991). Patel: A Life. India: Navajivan. p. 292. ASIN B0006EYQ0A. Sardar Vallabhbhai Patel believed that if Junagadh was permitted to go to Pakistan, it would exacerbate the communal tension already simmering in Gujarat. The princely state was surrounded on all of its land borders by India, with an outlet onto the Arabian Sea. The unsettled conditions in Junagadh had led to a cessation of all trade with India and the food position became precarious. With the region in crisis, the Nawab, fearing for his life, felt forced to flee to Karachi with his family and his followers, and there he established a provisional government. Vallabhbhai Patel offered Pakistan time to reverse its acceptance of the accession and to hold a plebiscite in Junagadh. Samaldas Gandhi formed a government-in-exile, the Aarzi Hukumat (in Urdu:Aarzi: Temporary, Hukumat: Government) of the people of Junagadh. Eventually, Patel ordered the forcible annexation of Junagadh's three principalities. Junagadh's state government, facing financial collapse and lacking forces with which to resist Indian force, invited the Government of India to take control. A plebiscite was conducted in December, in which approximately 99% of the people chose India over Pakistan.Rajmohan GandhiGandhi, Rajmohan (1991). Patel: A Life. India: Navajivan. p. 438. ASIN B0006EYQ0A.Background After the announcement by the last Viceroy of India, Lord Mountbatten, on 3 June 1947, of the intention to partition British India, the British parliament passed the Indian Independence Act 1947 on 11 July 1947. as a result, the native states were left with these choices: to remain independent or to accede to either of the two new British Dominionsdominions, the Union of India or the Dominion of Pakistan. The Indian Government made efforts to persuade Nawab Sahab of Junagadh to accede to

India, but he remained firm. The Indian minister V. P. Menon came to request an accession to India, threatening consequences in case of denial. The Nawab however decided to accede to Pakistan, and an announcement to this effect was made in the gazette of Junagadh (Dastrural Amal Sarkar Junagadh) on 15 August 1947. Instrument of accession Immediately after making the announcement in Dastrural Amal Sarkar Junagadh, the Jungadh government communicated to Pakistan its wish to accede, and a delegation headed by Ismail was sent to Karachi with the Instrument of Accession signed by the Nawab. The Constituent Assembly of Pakistan considered the proposal in detail and approved it. The Quaid-e-Azam, Muhammad Ali Jinnah, as Governor General of Pakistan, counter-signed the Instrument of Accession on 15 September 1947. This was notified in the Gazette of Pakistan and Dasturul Amal, the Gazette of Junagadh, on that date. The Instrument of Accession provided for the right of the Pakistan legislature to legislate in the areas of Defence and Communication, as well as others. Although the territory of Junagadh was geographically not adjoining the existing Pakistan, it had a link by sea through the Veraval Port of Junagadh. Menon's reaction V. P. Menon, the Secretary of the States department of the Government of India, travelled to Junagadh on 17 September 1947 and met Sir Shah Nawaz Bhutto, the dewan (or Chief Minister) of Junagadh. Menon said he had brought a message from the Indian Government and wished to deliver it to the Nawab in person. Bhutto said he could not arrange a meeting with the Nawab as he was not feeling well. Menon expressed displeasure, but conveyed the message of the Indian Government to Bhutto, insisting that Junagadh should withdraw its accession to Pakistan. Bhutto told Menon that the accession was now complete and that according to international law only the Government of Pakistan was responsible. Menon went to Bombay and met Samaldas Gandhi, a journalist of Rajkot who was related to Mohandas Karamchand GandhiMohandas Gandhi, and others, and unfolded the scheme of "Arziee Hukumat" (Provisional Government). On 24 September 1947, Mohandas K. Gandhi condemned the action of the Junagadh government in a prayer meeting held at Delhi. Provisional government (Aarzee Hukumat)In the meanwhile, there were exchanges between the governments of India and Pakistan. Pakistan told the Indian Government that the accession was in accordance with the Scheme of Independence announced by the outgoing British and that Junagadh was now part of Pakistan. While this exchange of correspondence was going on, India closed all its borders to Junagadh and stopped the movement of goods, transport and postal articles. In view of worsening situation, the Nawab and his family left Junagadh and arrived in Karachi on 25 October 1947. On 27 October 1947, Bhutto, as Chief Minister of Junagadh, wrote a letter to Jinnah explaining the critical situation of which the State government. As the situation worsened, he wrote again on 28 October 1947 to Ikramullah, Secretary of the Pakistan Ministry of Foreign Affairs, seeking help and directions. When all hopes for assistance from Pakistan were lost, Bhutto wrote by telegram on 1 November 1947 to Nawab Saheb at Karachi, explaining the situation and the danger to life and property, considering an armed attack was imminent. In a return telegram, the Nawab authorised Bhutto to act in the best interests of the Muslim population of Junagadh. A meeting of the Junagadh State Council was called on 5 November to discuss the critical situation. The Council authorised Bhutto to take appropriate action. He sent Captain Harvey Johnson, a senior member of the Council of Ministers, to Rajkot to meet Indian officials. Another meeting of the Junagadh State Council was convened on 7 November, and some prominent citizens of Junagadh state were also invited. The meeting continued till 3 o'clock in the morning and decided that instead of surrendering to the "Provisional Government", the Indian Government should be requested to take over the administration of Junagadh to protect the lives of its citizens, which were being threatened by Provisional Government forces. On 8 November, Bhutto sent a letter to Nilam Butch, Provincial Head of the Indian Government in Rajkot, requesting him to help to restore law and order in Junagadh to prevent bloodshed. Harvey Johnson took the message to Rajkot. The head of the Indian administration telephoned V. P. Menon in Delhi and read out the letter. Menon immediately rushed to see Jawaharlal Nehru and explained the situation. After consultation with other ministers and V. B. Patel, the home minister, a formal order was drafted and a notification issued announcing the take-over of Junagadh at the request of its Chief Minister. The notification promised a referendum in due course. Bhutto left Junagadh for Karachi on the night of 8 November 1947. On 9 November, the Indian Air Force flew several sorties at low level over Junagadh. Entry of Indian forces Soon columns of Indian tanks and other vehicles carrying Indian soldiers entered Junagadh state. At 6 p.m. on 9 November, Captain Harvey Johnson and Chief Secretary Gheewala, a civil servant of Junagadh state, formally handed over the charge of the State to the Indian Government. On the same day, Nehru sent a telegram to Liaquat Ali Khan about the Indian take-over of Junagadh. Khan sent a return telegram to Nehru stating that Junagadh was Pakistani territory, and nobody except the Pakistan government was authorised to invite anybody to Junagadh. He also accused the Indian Government of naked aggression on Pakistan's territory and of violating international law. The Government of Pakistan strongly opposed the Indian occupation. Nehru wrote In view of special circumstances pointed out by Junagadh Dewan that is the Prime Minister of Junagadh - our Regional Commissioner at Rajkot has taken temporarily charge of Junagadh administration. This has been done to avoid disorder and resulting chaos. We have, however, no desire to continue this arrangement and wish to find a speedy solution in accordance with the wishes of the people of Junagadh. We have pointed out to you previously that final decision should be made by means of referendum or plebiscite. We would be glad to discuss this question and allied matters affecting Junagadh with representatives of your Government at the earliest possible moment convenient to you. We propose to invite Nawab of Junagadh to send his representatives to this conference. The Government of Pakistan protested, saying that the accession of the state to Pakistan was already accepted. In reply to the above telegram, the Prime Minister of Pakistan sent the following: Your telegram informing that your Government had taken charge of Junagadh was received by me on November 10, 1947. Your action in taking over State Administration and sending Indian troops to state without any authority from Pakistan Government and indeed without our knowledge, is a clear violation of Pakistan territory and breach of International law. Indian Government's activities on accession of Junagadh to Pakistan have all been directed to force the State to renounce accession and all kinds of weapons have been used by you to achieve this end. We consider your action in taking charge of Junagadh Administration and sending Indian troops to occupy Junagadh to be a direct act of hostility against Pakistan Dominion. We demand that you should immediately withdraw your forces, and relinquish charge of administration to the rightful ruler and stop people of Union of India from invading Junagadh and committing acts of violence. This was the followed by a Press Statement made by the Prime Minister of Pakistan. It was communicated to Prime Minister of India on November 16, 1947 and read as follows: In spite of the gravest provocation, we have refrained from any action which should result in armed conflict. We could with full justification and legal right could have sent our forces to Junagadh but at no time since the accession of state, was a single soldier sent by us to Junagadh and our advice throughout to the State Authorities was to exercise the greatest restraint. Manavadar, another State which had acceded to Pakistan and Mangrol and Babariawad have also been occupied by Indian troops. Immediately after the take-over of the state, all rebel Muslim officials of the state were put behind the bars. They included Ismail Abrehani, a senior minister in the Junagadh government, who had taken the instrument of Accession to the Quaid-e-Azam for his signature. Abrehani refused to leave Junagadh, even when he was offered in jail the option of going to Pakistan, saying that despite its occupation Junagadh was part of Pakistan according to international law and he preferred to remain. He stayed and later died in Junagadh. Plebiscite A plebiscite was held on 20 February 1948, in which all but 91 out of 190,870 who voted (from an electorate of 201,457) voted to join India, ie. 99% of the population voted to join India.A.G. NOORANI. "Of Jinnah and Junagadh". . Retrieved May 27, 2011.Later arrangements Junagadh became part of the Indian Saurashtra State until November 1, 1956, when Saurashtra became part of Bombay State. Bombay State was split into the linguistic states of Gujarat and Maharashtra in 1960, and Junagadh is now one of the modern districts of Saurasthra in Gujarat. References

Siachen conflict 246

Siachen conflict

The **Siachen Conflict**, sometimes referred to as the **Siachen War**, is a military conflict between India and Pakistan over the disputed Siachen Glacier region in Kashmir. A cease-fire went into effect in 2003. The conflict began in 1984 with India's successful Operation *Meghdoot* during which it wrested control of the Siachen Glacier from Pakistan and forced the Pakistanis to retreat west of the Saltoro Ridge. India has established control over all of the 70 kilometres (**unknown operator: u'strong'** mi) long Siachen Glacier and all of its tributary glaciers, as well as the three main passes of the Saltoro Ridge immediately west of the glacier—Sia La, Bilafond La, and Gyong La. Pakistan controls the glacial valleys immediately west of the Saltoro Ridge. [1][2] According to *TIME* magazine, India gained more than 1000 square miles (**unknown operator: u'strong'** km²) of territory because of its military operations in Siachen. [3]

Conflict

The Siachen glacier is the highest battleground on earth, [4][5] where India and Pakistan have fought intermittently since April 13, 1984. Both countries maintain permanent military presence in the region at a height of over 6000 metres (**unknown operator: u'strong'** ft). More than 2000 people have died in this inhospitable terrain, mostly due to weather extremes and the natural hazards of mountain warfare.

The conflict in Siachen stems from the incompletely demarcated territory on the map beyond the map coordinate known as NJ9842. The 1972 Simla Agreement did not clearly mention who controlled the glacier, merely stating that from the NJ9842 location the boundary would proceed "thence north to the glaciers." UN officials presumed there would be no dispute between India and Pakistan over such a cold and barren region. ^[6]

Oropolitics

In 1949, a Cease-Fire Line Agreement(CFL) was signed and ratified by India, Pakistan and the UN Military Observer Group that delineated entire CFL. In 1956-58, a scientific team led by the Geological Survey of India recorded its findings publicly including information about the Siachen and other glaciers. [7]

After Pakistan ceded Shaksgam Valley to China in a boundary agreement in 1963, Pakistan started giving approval to western expedition to the east of mountain K2. ^[7] In 1957 Pakistan permitted a British expedition under Eric Shipton to approach the Siachen through the Bilafond La, and recce Saltoro Kangri. ^[8] Five years later a Japanese-Pakistani expedition put two Japanese and a Pakistani Army climber on top of Saltoro Kangri. ^[9] These were early moves in this particular game of oropolitics.

Maps from Pakistan, the United Nations and other global atlases depicted the CFL correctly till around 1967-72. The United States Defense Mapping Agency (now National Geospatial-Intelligence Agency) began in about 1967 to show international boundary on their Tactical Pilotage Charts as proceeding from NJ9842 east-northeast to the Karakoram Pass at 5,534 m (18,136 ft) on the China border without justification or documentation [10] Numerous governmental and private cartographers and atlas producers followed suit. This resulted in the US cartographically giving the entire **unknown operator: u','** square kilometers (**unknown operator: u'strong'unknown operator: u','** sq mi) of the Siachen-Saltoro area to Pakistan. [11]

In the 1970s and early 1980s several mountaineering expeditions applied to Pakistan to climb high peaks in the Siachen area due in part to U.S Defense Mapping Agency and most other maps and atlases showing it on the Pakistani side of the line. Pakistan granted a number of permits. This in turn reinforced the Pakistani claim on the area, as these expeditions arrived on the glacier with a permit obtained from the Government of Pakistan. Teram Kangri I (7465 m/unknown operator: u'strong' ft) and Teram Kangri II (7406 m/unknown operator: u'strong' ft) were climbed in 1975 by a Japanese expedition led by H. Katayama, which approached through Pakistan via the Bilafond La. [12]

Siachen conflict 247

The Indian government and military took notice, and protested the cartography. Prior to 1984 neither India nor Pakistan had any permanent presence in the area. Having become aware of the errant US military maps and the permit incidents, Colonel Narendra "Bull" Kumar, then commanding officer of the Indian Army's High Altitude Warfare School, mounted an Army expedition to the Siachen area as a counter-exercise. In 1978 this expedition climbed Teram Kangri II, claiming it as a first ascent in a typical 'oropolitical' riposte. Unusually for the normally secretive Indian Army, the news and photographs of this expedition were published in 'The Illustrated Weekly of India', a widely-circulated popular magazine. [13]

The first public acknowledgment of the maneuvers and the developing conflict situation in the Siachen was an abbreviated article titled "High Politics in the Karakoram" by Joydeep Sircar in *The Telegraph* newspaper of Calcutta in 1982. [14] The full text was re-printed as "Oropolitics" in the Alpine Journal, London, in 1984. [15]

Skirmish

At army headquarters in Rawalpindi, Pakistani generals decided they had better stake a claim to Siachen before India did. Islamabad then committed an intelligence blunder, according to a now retired Pakistani army colonel. "They ordered Arctic-weather gear from a London outfitters who also supplied the Indians," says the colonel. "Once the Indians got wind of it, they ordered 300 outfits—twice as many as we had—and rushed their men up to Siachen." [16]

Reportedly with specific intelligence of a possible Pakistani operation, India launched Operation Meghdoot (named after the divine cloud messenger in a Sanskrit play by Kalidasa) on 13 April 1984 when the Kumaon Regiment of the Indian Army and the Indian Air Force went into the glacier region. India was soon in control of the area, beating Pakistan to the Saltoro Ridge high ground by about a week. The two northern passes - Sia La and Bilafond La - were quickly secured by India. When the Pakistanis arrived at the region in 1984, they found a 300-man Indian battalion dug into the highest mountaintops. [16] The contentious area is about 900 square miles (unknown operator: u'strong' km²) [17] to nearly 1000 square miles (unknown operator: u'strong' km²) of territory. [18] After 1984, Pakistan launched several attempts to displace the Indian forces, but with little success. The most well known was in 1987, when an attempt was made by Pakistan to dislodge India from the area. The attack was masterminded by Pervez Musharraf (later President of Pakistan) heading a newly raised elite SSG commando unit raised with United States Special Operations Forces help in the area. [19] A special garrison with eight thousand troops was built at Khapalu. The immediate aim was to capture



A memorial at the headquarters of the Dogra Regiment of the Indian Army in remembrance of members of the regiment who died or served in the Siachen Conflict

Bilafond La but after bitter fighting that included hand to hand combat, the Pakistanis were thrown back and the positions remained the same. The only Param Vir Chakra – India's highest gallantry award – to be awarded for combat in the Siachen area went to Naib Subedar Bana Singh (retired as Subedar Major/Honorary Captain), who in a daring daylight raid assaulted and captured a Pakistani post atop a 22,000 foot (6,700 m) peak, now named Bana Post, after climbing a 457 m (1500 feet) ice cliff face. [20][21]

Siachen conflict 248

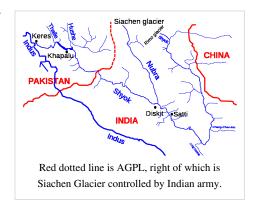
Ground situation

In his memoirs, former Pakistani president General Pervez Musharraf states that Pakistan lost almost 900 square miles (**unknown operator: u'strong'** km²) of territory that it claimed. [17] *TIME* states that the Indian advance captured nearly 1000 square miles (**unknown operator: u'strong'** km²) of territory claimed by Pakistan. [18]

Further attempts to reclaim positions were launched by Pakistan in 1990, 1995, 1996 and even in early 1999, just prior to the Lahore Summit. The 1995 attack by Pakistan SSG was significant as it resulted in 40 casualties for Pakistan troops without any changes in the positions. An Indian IAF MI-17 helicopter was shot down in 1996.

The Indian army controls all of the 70 kilometres (**unknown operator: u'strong'** mi) long Siachen Glacier and all of its tributary glaciers, as well as the three main passes of the Saltoro Ridge immediately west of the glacier—Sia La, Bilafond La, and Gyong La—thus holding onto the tactical advantage of high ground. [22][23][24][25]

The Pakistanis control the glacial valley just five kilometers southwest of Gyong La. The Pakistanis have been unable get up to the crest of the Saltoro Ridge, while the Indians cannot come down and abandon their strategic high posts.





The line between where Indian and Pakistani troops are presently holding onto their respective posts is being increasingly referred to as the Actual Ground Position Line (AGPL). [26][27]

Severe conditions

A cease-fire went into effect in 2003. Even before then, every year more soldiers were killed because of severe weather than enemy firing. The two sides by 2003 had lost an estimated 2,000 personnel primarily due to frostbite, avalanches and other complications. Together, the nations have about 150 manned outposts along the glacier, with some 3,000 troops each. Official figures for maintaining these outposts are put at ~\$300 and ~\$200 million for India and Pakistan respectively. India built the world's highest helipad on the glacier at Point Sonam, 21,000 feet (6,400 m) above the sea level, to supply its troops. The problems of reinforcing or evacuating the high-altitude ridgeline have led to India's development of the Dhruv Mk III helicopter, powered by the Shakti engine, which was flight-tested to lift and land personnel and stores from the Sonam post, the highest permanently manned post in the world. [28] India also installed the world's highest telephone booth on the glacier. [29]

Kargil War

One of the factors behind the Kargil War in 1999 when Pakistan sent infiltrators to occupy vacated Indian posts across the Line of Control was their belief that India would be forced to withdraw from Siachen in exchange of a Pakistani withdrawal from Kargil. Both sides had previously desired to disengage from the costly military outposts but after the Kargil War, India decided to maintain its military outposts on the glacier, wary of further Pakistani incursions into Kashmir if they vacate from the Siachen Glacier posts without an official recognition from Pakistan of the current positions.

Siachen conflict 249

Visits

During her tenure as Prime Minister of Pakistan, Ms Benazir Bhutto, visited the area west of Gyong La, making her the first premier from either side to get to the Siachen region. On June 12, 2005, Prime Minister Manmohan Singh became the first Indian Prime Minister to visit the area, calling for a peaceful resolution of the problem. In 2007, the President of India, Abdul Kalam became the first head of state to visit the area.

The Chief of Staff of the US Army, General George Casey on October 17, 2008 visited the Siachen Glacier along with Indian Army Chief, General Deepak Kapoor. The US General visited for the purpose of "developing concepts and medical aspects of fighting in severe cold conditions and high altitude".

Since September 2007, India has welcomed mountaineering and trekking expeditions to the forbidding glacial heights. The expeditions have been meant to show the international audience that Indian troops hold "almost all dominating heights" on the important Saltoro Ridge west of Siachen Glacier, and to show that Pakistani troops are not within 15 miles (unknown operator: u'strong' km) of the 43.5-mile (unknown operator: u'strong' km) Siachen Glacier. An October 2008 trek was "being undertaken to send a message that every civilian with the help of military can visit this part of the country," a senior Indian army officer explained. The civilian treks to Siachen started despite vehement protests from Pakistan which termed it India's "tourism" in "disputed territory". Pakistan conducts similar expeditions in nearby areas under its control with no requirement of a military liaison officer to accompany trekkers; their permit formalities are simpler, often taking just two weeks. Pakistan in 2008 did not lodge a formal protest against the treks and India too has also kept it a low key affair, with Indian Defence Minister A.K. Antony skipping the flagging off ceremony.

2012 avalanche

In the early morning of 7 April 2012, an avalanche hit a Pakistani military headquarters in the area, burying over 120 Pakistani soldiers and civilian contractors. [31][32]

Operations

• Operation Meghdoot (1984)

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Siachen conflict 250

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Operation Brasstacks 251

Operation Brasstacks

The **Operation Brasstacks** was a codename of a large military exercise undertaken by the Indian Army in Rajasthan region of India during November 1986 and March 1987. It was one of the largest mobilizations of Indian Armed Forces in the Indian subcontinent. Many regard this as one of the most critical points in the relationships between India and Pakistan with regard to nuclear war. The exercise's magnitude and closeness to the border caused a situation where a war between India and Pakistan looked imminent. There is still a considerable debate regarding the purpose of the exercise as many believe that India was preparing for a war against Pakistan, even though the stated objective of Operation Brasstacks was to test new concepts of mechanization, mobility, and air support devised by General Sundarji.^[1]

Indian army rationale and moves

The Chief of Staff of the Indian Army, General Krishnaswamy Sundarrajan (popularly known as Sundarji), at that time, advocated for modern methods of land-based warfare and professionalism in the Indian Army. According to General Sundarji, Operation Brasstacks was carried out to test new concepts of mechanization, mobility, and air support.

The scale of the operation was bigger than any NATO exercise and the biggest land exercise since World War II. According to retired Lieutenant-General PN Hoon, commander of the Western Military Command of the Indian Army, Operation Brasstacks was a mobilization of the entire army of India. The exercise took place in the deserts of Rajasthan instead of the sensitive regions of Kashmir and the then restive Punjab. At one point of time nearly 400,000 Indian army troops were deployed directly across the Sindh Province of Pakistan. The magnitude and large scale direction of the exercise led to Pakistan fears that India was displaying an overwhelming conventional superiority and was planning to invade Pakistan, and dismember it by surgical strikes, as it did with East Pakistan during the Indo-Pak 1971 *Winter war*.

Pakistan's response

Pakistan's response was to mobilize its entire V Corps and Southern Air Command, near the Indian state of Punjab. Then-President and Chief of Army Staff of the Pakistan Army, General Zia-ul-Haq viewed the exercise as a direct threat and challenge to Pakistan's existence, and issued commands Armoured Corps and entire V Corps to move to the front lines. Meanwhile, Pakistan Air Force proceeded with Pakistan Army, and the Southern Air Command was put on high-alert directly reporting to Chief of Air Staff of Pakistan Air Force Air Chief Marshal Jamal Ahmad Khan.

In order to remind the Indian Armed Forces of the possible repercussions of war with Pakistan General Zia-ul-Haq famously said: "If your [Indian Armed] Forces cross our [Pakistan] borders by even an inch, we are going to annihilate your cities", indicating that if necessary, Pakistanis will not hesitate to use nuclear weapons, as first strike policy, in order to defend their motherland. Many defence analysts saw this statement as the first real, although subtle, confirmation of Pakistan's development of nuclear weapons and discouraged an Indian invasion of Pakistan's territory. [2]

By mid January, both the Indian army and the Pakistan army were facing each other on the frontiers. The situation could have potentially lead to a war between a *de facto* nuclear weapon state (India—who had already conducted a nuclear test in 1974 codename *Smiling Buddha*) and a state that was believed to be developing nuclear weapons at that time (Pakistan).

Operation Brasstacks 252

End of Operation Brasstacks

According to events that played out and stance taken by the Indian army, Operation Brasstacks was only an exercise and not supposed to be a provocative one. The media, particularly the western media, was involved after this and intense diplomatic maneuvers followed preventing any further escalation in hostilities.

Indian Prime minister Rajiv Gandhi and self-appointed President General Zia-ul-Haq involved in Cricket diplomacy to resolve this issue towards a peaceful end. It is also widely quoted that General Zia-ul-Haq, using his military confidence to his advantage, threatened and intimidated the Indian prime minister in the same cricket diplomacy during a match by warning him of Pakistani fighter jets loaded with nuclear weapons awaiting orders back home. [3]

Further reading

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Sir Creek 253

Sir Creek

Sir Creek listen is a 96 km (60 mi) strip of water that is disputed between India and Pakistan in the Rann of Kutch marshlands. The creek, which opens up into the Arabian Sea, divides the Kutch region of the Indian state of Gujarat with the Sindh province of Pakistan. It is located at approximately 23°58′N 68°48′E. Originally and locally it is called 'Baan Ganga'. Sir Creek is named after the British representative.

The long-standing dispute hinges in the actual demarcation "from the mouth of Sir Creek to the top of Sir Creek, and from the top of Sir Creek eastward to a point on the line designated on the Western Terminus". From this point onwards, the boundary is unambiguously fixed as defined by the Tribunal Award of 1968.^[1]

The creek itself is located in the uninhabited marshlands. During the monsoon season between June and September, the creek floods its banks and envelops the low-lying salty mudflats around it. During the winter season, the area is home to flamingoes and other migratory birds.

Dispute

The dispute lies in the interpretation of the maritime boundary line between Kutch and Sindh. Before India's independence, the provincial region was a part of Bombay Presidency of British India. After India's independence in 1947, Sindh became a part of Pakistan while Kutch remained a part of India.

Pakistan lays claim to the entire creek as per *paras 9 and 10* of the *Bombay Government Resolution of 1914*^[2] signed between the then Government of Sindh and Rao Maharaj, the ruler of the princely state of Kutch. ^[3]

The resolution, which demarcated the boundaries between the two territories, included the creek as part of Sindh, thus setting the boundary as the eastern flank of the creek. The boundary line, known as the "Green Line", is disputed by India which maintains that it is an "indicative line", known as a "ribbon line" in technical jargon. [1] India sticks to its position that the boundary lies mid-channel as depicted in another map drawn in 1925, and implemented by the installation of mid-channel pillars back in 1924. [4]

India supports its stance by citing the Thalweg Doctrine in International Law. The law states that river boundaries between two states may be, if the two states agree, divided by the mid-channel. Though Pakistan does not dispute the 1925 map, it maintains that the Doctrine is not applicable in this case as it only applies to bodies of water that are navigable, which the Sir Creek is not. India rejects the



The Green Line is the boundary as claimed by Pakistan, the red line is the boundary as claimed by India. The black line is the undisputed section.

Pakistani stance by maintaining the fact that the creek is navigable in high tide, and that fishing trawlers use it to go out to sea. Another point of concern for Pakistan is that Sir Creek has changed its course considerably over the years. If the boundary line is demarcated according to the Thalweg principle, Pakistan stands to lose a considerable portion of the territory that was historically part of the province of Sindh. Acceding to India's stance would also result in the shifting of the land/sea terminus point several kilometres to the detriment of Pakistan, leading in turn to a loss of several thousand square kilometres of its Exclusive Economic Zone under the United Nations Convention on Law of the Sea.

In April 1965, a dispute there contributed to the Indo-Pakistani War of 1965, when fighting broke out between India and Pakistan. Later the same year, British Prime Minister Harold Wilson successfully persuaded both countries to end hostilities and set up a tribunal to resolve the dispute. A verdict was reached in 1968 which saw Pakistan getting 10% of its claim of 9,000 km² (3,500 sq. miles).

Sir Creek 254

The disputed region was at the center of international attention in 1999 after Mig-21 fighter planes of the Indian Air Force shot down a Pakistani Navy Breguet Atlantique surveillance aircraft over the Sir Creek on August 10, 1999, killing all 16 on board. India claimed that the plane had strayed into its airspace, which was disputed by the Pakistani navy. [5] (See the Atlantique Incident).

Economic reasons

Though the creek has little military value, it holds immense economic gain. Much of the region is rich in oil and gas below the sea bed, and control over the creek would have a huge bearing on the energy potential of each nation. Also once the boundaries are defined, it would help in the determination of the maritime boundaries which are drawn as an extension of onshore reference points. Maritime boundaries also help in determining the limits of Exclusive Economic Zones (EEZs) and continental shelves. EEZs extend to 200 nautical miles (370 km) and can be subjected to commercial exploitation. [1]

The demarcation would also prevent the inadvertent crossing over of fishermen of both nations into each others' territories.

Dispute resolution

Since 1969, there have been eight rounds of talks between the two nations, without a breakthrough. Steps to resolve the dispute include:

- 1. Allocation
- 2. Delimitation
- 3. Demarcation
- 4. Administration

Since neither side has conceded ground, India has proposed that the maritime boundary could be demarcated first, as per the provisions of Technical Aspects of Law of Sea (TALOS). [3] However, Pakistan has staunchly refused the proposal on the grounds that the dispute should be resolved first. Pakistan has also proposed that the two sides go in for international arbitration, which India has flatly refused. India maintains that all bilateral disputes should be resolved without the intervention of third-parties.

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Sir Creek 255

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Insurgency in Jammu and Kashmir

The **insurgency in Kashmir** has existed in various forms. Thousands of lives have been lost since 1989 due to the intensification of both the insurgency and the fight against it.

A widespread armed insurgency started in Kashmir with the disputed 1987 election with some elements from the State's assembly forming militant wings which acted as a catalyst for the emergence of armed insurgency in the region. [1][2]

The Inter-Services Intelligence of Pakistan has been accused by India of supporting and training mujahideen.^{[3][4]} to fight in Jammu and Kashmir. ^{[5][6]} According to official figures released in Jammu and Kashmir assembly, there were 3,400 disappearance cases and the conflict has left more than 47,000 people dead as of July 2009. However, the number of insurgency-related deaths in the state have fallen sharply since the start of a slow-moving peace process between India and Pakistan.^[7]

History of the insurgency

1947-1987

After independence from colonial rule India and Pakistan fought a war over the princely state of Kashmir. At the end of the war India controlled the most valuable parts of Kashmir. While there were sporadic periods of violence there was no organized insurgency movement. [9]

During this period legislative elections in Jammu and Kashmir were first held in 1951 and Sheikh Abdullah's party stood unopposed. However Sheikh Abdullah would fall in and out of favour with the central government and would often be dismissed only to be re-appointed later on. This was a time of political instability in Jammu and Kashmir and it went through several periods of President's rule by the Federal Government. [10]

1987-2004

After Sheikh Abdullah's death, his son Farooq Abdullah took over as Chief Minister of Jammu and Kashmir. Farooq Abdullah eventually fell out of favour with the Central Government and the Prime Minister of India, Indira Gandhi had him dismissed. A year later Farooq Abdullah announced an alliance with the ruling Congress party for the elections of 1987. The elections were allegedly rigged in favour of Farooq Abdullah. [10][11]

This led to the rise of an armed insurgency movement composed, in part, of those who unfairly lost elections. Pakistan supplied these groups with logistical support, arms, recuits and training. [10][11][12][13][14]

2004-present

Beginning in 2004 Pakistan began to end its support for insurgents in Kashmir. This happened because terrorist groups linked to Kashmir twice tried to assassinate Pakistani President General Pervez Musharraf. His successor, Asif Ali Zardari has continued the policy, calling insurgents in Kashmir "terrorists". Although it is unclear if Pakistan's intelligence agency, the Inter-Services Intelligence, thought to be the agency aiding and controlling the insurgency [15][16][17] is following Pakistan's commitment to end support for the insurgency in Kashmir.

Despite the change in the nature of the insurgency from a phenomenon supported by external forces to a primarily domestic driven movement [8][15][18][19][20] the Indian government has continued to send large numbers of troops to the Indian border and to crack down on civil liberties. [18][20][21]

There have been widespread protests against Indian rule. [18]

Once the most formidable face of Kashmir militancy, Hizbul Mujahideen is slowly fading away as its remaining commanders and cadres are being taken out on a regular interval by security forces. [22]

Reasons for the insurgency

Humanitarian abuses

Some analysts have suggested that the number of Indian troops in Jammu and Kashmir is close to 600,000 although estimates vary and the Indian government refuses to release official figures. ^[23] These troops have engaged in widespread humanitarian abuses ^[20] and have engaged in extrajudicial killings. ^[21] This has led to support for the insurgency. However in October 2010, Army Chief Gen VK Singh stated in an interview that over 95% of the allegations of human rights violations proved to be false and had apparently been levelled with the "ulterior motive of maligning the armed forces". ^[24] Giving details, he said 988 allegations against the Army personnel in Jammu and Kashmir were received since 1994. Out of these 965 cases were investigated and 940 were found false, accounting for 95.2 percent. ^[24]

Military forces in Jammu and Kashmir operate under emergency powers granted to them by the central government. These powers allow the military to curtail civil liberties, creating further support for the insurgency.^[25]

The insurgents have also abused human rights, engaging in what some have called an ethnic cleansing.^[26] The government's inability to protect the people from both its own troops and the insurgency has further eroded support for the government.^[27]

ISI's role

The Pakistani Inter-Services Intelligence has allegedly encouraged and aided the Kashmir independence movement through an insurgency^{[15][16][17][28]} due to its dispute on the legitimacy of Indian rule in Kashmir, with the insurgency as an easy way to keep Indian troops distracted and cause international condemnation of India.^[8]

Political rights

The insurgency was sparked by the rigging of state elections in 1987. This has contributed to anti-government sentiment.

A government report found that almost half of all Kashmiri Panchayat Raj positions were vacant and suggested that the reason for this was the destabilizing effect of the conflict. The Panchayat Raj is a system of elected village level governance created by the 73rd amendment to the Indian constitution. The report also noted that their ability to effectively govern was "crippled." [29]

There have been some signs in recent times that the Indian government has begun to take Kashmiri political views more seriously, especially those expressed through elections. During the Jammu and Kashmir state assembly elections, 2008 the national ruling party chose to form a coalition with the party that won the most votes in order to "honour the mandate" of the election even though it was contrary to their immediate interests. ^[30]

Mujahideen influence

After the invasion of Afghanistan by the Soviet Union, Mujahideen fighters, with the aid of Pakistan, slowly infiltrated Kashmir with the goal of spreading a radical Islamist ideology.^[11]

Religion

Jammu and Kashmir is the only Muslim majority state in Hindu-majority India. Indian-American journalist Asra Nomani states that while India itself is a secular state, Muslims are politically, culturally and economically marginalized when compared to Hindus in India as a whole. [31] The Government's decision to transfer 99 acres of forest land to a Hindu organization solidified this feeling and led to one of the largest protest rallies in Jammu and Kashmir. [32]

Other reasons

The Indian National Census shows that Kashmir lags behind other states in most socio-development indicators such as literacy rates and has unusually high levels of unemployment. This contributes to anti-government sentiment. [33]

Kunanposhspora mass rape

[34

Kunan Poshpora Rape incident The Kunan Poshpora mass rape occurred on February 23, 1991, when units of the Indian army launched a search and interrogation operation in the village of Kunan Poshpora, located in Kashmir's remote Kupwara District. At least 53 women were allegedly gang raped by soldiers that night^[35]. However, Human Rights organizations including Human Rights Watch have reported that the number of raped women could be as high as $100^{[36][37][38]}0^{[39]}$. February 23, 1991, at least 23 and perhaps as many as 100 women were reported to have been raped in the village of Kunan Poshpora by soldiers of the Fourth Raj Rifles, who were posted in Kupwara. Although the Indian government's investigations into the incident rejected the allegations as "baseless," international human rights organizations have expressed serious doubts about the integrity of these investigations and the manner in which they were conducted, stating that the Indian government launched a "campaign to acquit the army of charges of human rights violations and discredit those who brought the charges [40]

According to reports, on February 23, 1991 at approximately 11:00PM soldiers from the 4th Rajputana Rifles cordoned off the village of Kunan Poshpora to conduct a search operation. The men were taken from their homes and assembled in an open field for interrogation overnight. Once the men had been taken away, soldiers allegedly gang raped a large number of village women overnight till 9:00 AM the next day. Local villagers alleged that up to 100 women "were gang-raped without any consideration of their age, married, unmarried, pregnancy etc., [41], The victims ranged in age from 13 to 80.[9] The village headman and other leaders have claimed that they reported the rapes to army officials on February 27, but the officials denied the charges and refused to take any further action. However, army officials claim that no report was ever made. On March 5, villagers complained to Kupwara district magistrate S.M. Yasin, who visited the village on March 7 to investigate. In his final report, he stated that the soldiers "behaved like wild beasts" [8] and described the attack as follows:

A large number of armed personnel entered into the houses of villagers and at gunpoint they gang-raped 23 ladies, without any consideration of their age, married, unmarried, pregnancy etc... there was a hue and cry in the whole village.

He went on to state: I found the villagers were harassed to the extreme possible extent. In the morning after 9 a.m. when the Army left, the village men folk were released and when they entered their houses, they were shocked to see that the Army forces have gang raped their daughters, wives, sisters, etc. The armed forces have forcibly taken No Objection Certificate from the locals as well as from the local police after doing the illegal action... I feel ashamed to put in black and white what kind of atrocities and their magnitude was brought to my notice on the spot.

On March 18, divisional commissioner Wajahat Habibullah visited the village, and filed a confidential report, parts of which were later released to the public. He concluded: "While the veracity of the complaint is highly doubtful, it still needs to be determined why such complaint was made at all. The people of the village are simple folk and by the Army's own admission have been generally helpful and even careful of security of the Army's officers... Unlike Brig. Sharma I found many of the village women genuinely angry ... It is recommended that the level of investigation be upgraded to that of a gazetted police officer. [42]

In response to criticism of the government's handling of the investigation, the army requested the Press Council of India to investigate the incident. The investigative team visited Kunan Poshpora in June, more than three months after the alleged attacks. Upon interviewing a number of the alleged victims, the team claimed that contradictions in their testimony rendered their allegations of rape "baseless. The Press Council's dismissal of all the Kunan Poshpora allegation, and the manner in which it carried out its investigation were widely criticized. Human Rights Watch wrote:

While the results of the examinations by themselves could not prove the charges of rape, they raised serious questions about the army's actions in Kunan Poshpora. Under the circumstances, the committee's eagerness to dismiss any evidence that might contradict the government's version of events is deeply disturbing. In the end, the committee has revealed itself to be far more concerned about countering domestic and international criticism than about uncovering the truth^[43]

The United States Department of State, in its 1992 report on international human rights, rejected the Indian government's conclusion, and determined that there was "was credible evidence to support charges that an elite army unit engaged in mass rape in the Kashmiri village of Kunan Poshpora.^[44]

Following the release of the Press Council's report, Indian authorities dismissed all of the allegations of mass rape as groundless. No further investigations were conducted.

In 1994, a Women's Initiative report featured the testimony of several of the alleged victims. Many complained of social ostracism from their families and communities because of the "shame" of having been raped. Some of the alleged victims reportedly committed suicide after the incident. According to the report, not a single marriage proposal had been received for any women, raped or not, in the village for three years after the incident.

Tactics

India

Over time the Indian government has increasingly relied on military presence and a curtailment of civil liberties to achieve its aims in Kashmir. [20] The military has committed massive human rights violations. [45]

For most of the history of the insurgency the government paid little attention to the political views of the Kashmiri people. The government would often dissolve assemblies, arrest elected politicians and impose President's rule. The government also rigged elections in 1987.^[10] In recent times there have been signs that the government is taking local elections more seriously.^[30]

The government has also funnelled development aid to Kashmir and Kashmir has now become the biggest per capita receiver of Federal aid. [46]

Pakistan

The Pakistani central government originally supported, trained and armed the insurgency in Kashmir, however after groups linked to the Kashmiri insurgency twice attempted to assassinate President Pervez Musharraf, Musharraf decided to end support for such groups.^[14] His successor, Asif Ali Zardari has continued the policy, calling insurgents in Kashmir "terrorists".^[15]

But the Pakistani Inter-Services Intelligence hasn't followed the lead of the government and has continued its support for insurgent groups in Kashmir [15][16][17] although Pakistani support for the insurgency has certainly waned. [20]

Insurgents

Since around 2000 the 'insurgency' has become far less violent and has instead taken on the form of protests and marches. [32] Certain groups have also chosen to lay down their arms and look for a peaceful resolution to the conflict. [47]

Groups

The different insurgent groups have different aims in Kashmir. Some want complete independence from both India and Pakistan, others want unification with Pakistan and still others just want greater autonomy from the Indian government.^[48]

A 2010 survey found that 43% in J&K would favour independence, with support for the independence movement unevenly distributed across the region. [49]

Identity

Over the last two years, the militant group, Lashkar-e-Toiba has split into two factions: *Al Mansurin* and *Al Nasirin*. Another new group reported to have emerged is the Save Kashmir Movement. Harkat-ul-Mujahideen (formerly known as Harkat-ul-Ansar) and Lashkar-e-Toiba are believed to be operating from Muzaffarabad, Azad Kashmir and Muridke, Pakistan respectively.

Other less well known groups are the Freedom Force and Farzandan-e-Milat. A smaller group, Al-Badr, has been active in Kashmir for many years and is still believed to be functioning. All Parties Hurriyat Conference, an organization that uses moderate means to press for the rights of the Kashmiris, is often considered as the *mediator* between New Delhi and insurgent groups.

Al-Qaeda

It is unclear if Al Qaeda has a presence in Jammu and Kashmir. Donald Rumsfield suggested that they were active^[50] and in 2002 the SAS hunted for Osama bin Laden in Jammu and Kashmir.^[51] Al Qaeda claims that it has established a base in Jammu and Kashmir^[52]

However there has been no evidence for any of these assertions.^{[50][51][52]} The Indian army also claims that there is no evidence of Al Qaeda presence in Jammu and Kashmir.^[53]

Al Qaeda has established bases in Pakistani administered Kashmir and some, including Robert Gates have suggested that they have helped to plan attacks in India. [53][54][55]

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The template Jammu and Kashmir freedom movement is being considered for deletion.

2001–2002 India–Pakistan standoff

The **2001–2002 India–Pakistan standoff** was a military standoff between India and Pakistan that resulted in the massing of troops on either side of the International Border (IB) and along the Line of Control (LoC) in the region of Kashmir. This was the second major military standoff between India and Pakistan following the successful detonation of nuclear devices by both countries in 1998 and the most recent standoff between the nuclear rivals. The other had been the Kargil War.

The military build up was initiated by India responding to a terrorist attack on the Indian Parliament on December 13, 2001 during which twelve people, including the five men who attacked the building, were killed. India claimed that the attacks were carried out by two Pakistan based Terrorist groups fighting Indian rule in Kashmir, Lashkar-e-Taiba (LeT) and Jaish-e-Mohammad (JeM), both of whom India has said are backed by Pakistan's Inter Services Intelligence (ISI) agency, [1] a charge Pakistan denied. [2][3][4] In the Western media, coverage of the standoff focused on the possibility of a nuclear war between the two countries and the implications of the potential conflict on the United States-led War on Terrorism. Tensions de-escalated following international diplomatic mediation which resulted in the October 2002 withdrawal of Indian [5] and Pakistani troops [6] from the International Border.

Parliament attack

On the morning of December 13, 2001, a group of five armed men attacked the Indian Parliament by breaching the security cordon at Gate 12. The five men killed seven people before being shot dead by the Parliament security.

World leaders and leaders in India's immediate neighbourhood condemned the attack on the Parliament, including Pakistan. On December 14, the ruling National Democratic Alliance (NDA) blamed Pakistan-based Lashkar-e-Taiba and Jaish-e-Mohammed for the attack. Home Minister LK Advani claimed, "we have received some clues about yesterday's incident, which shows that a neighbouring country, and some terrorist organisations active there behind it," in an indirect reference to Pakistan and Pakistan-based militant groups. The same day, in a demarche to Pakistani High Commissioner to India Ashraf Jehangir Qazi, India demanded that Pakistan stop the activities of LeT and JeM, that Pakistan apprehend the organisation's leaders and that Pakistan curb the financial assets and the group's access to these assets. [8] In response to the Indian government's statements, Pakistani forces were put on high alert the same day. Pakistan military spokesman Major-General Rashid Qureshi claimed that the Parliament attack was a "drama staged by Indian intelligence agencies to defame the freedom struggle in 'occupied Kashmir'" and further warned that India would pay "heavily if they engage in any misadventure". [9] On December 20, amid calls from the United States and the United Nations (UN) to exercise restraint, India mobilised and deployed its troops to Kashmir and the Indian part of the Punjab in what was India's largest military mobilization since the 1971 Indo-Pakistani War. The mobilization was known as **Operation Parakram** (Sanskrit: *Valor*). [10]

Confrontations

December-January

In late December, both countries moved ballistic missiles closer to each other's border, and mortar and artillery fire was reported in Kashmir. ^[11] By January 2002, India had mobilized around 500,000 troops and three armored divisions on the Pakistani border concentrated along the Line of Control in Kashmir. Pakistan responded similarly, deploying around 300,000 troops to that region. ^[17] This was the largest buildup on the subcontinent since the 1971 war.

On January 12, 2002, Pakistani President Pervez Musharraf gave a speech intended to reduce tensions with India. He declared that Pakistan would combat extremism on its own soil, but said that Pakistan had a right to Kashmir. [12]

Indian leaders reacted with skepticism. Minister of State for External Affairs Omar Abdullah, a Kashmiri himself said that the speech was nothing new, and others said that it would 'not make any change in the Indian stand'. [13] Still, tensions eased somewhat. The Indian President told his generals that there would be no attack "for now." [14]

May-June

However, tensions escalated dramatically in May. On May 14, three gunmen killed 34 people in an army camp near Jammu, most of them the wives and children of Hindu and Sikh soldiers serving in Kashmir. The Army was angered by the attack and pressed Indian Prime Minister Vajpayee and his cabinet for permission to attack Pakistani military targets. On May 18, India expelled Pakistani's ambassador. That same day, thousands of villagers fled Pakistani artillery fire in Jammu. On May 2, clashes killed 6 Pakistani soldiers and 1 Indian soldier, as well as civilians from both sides. On May 22, Indian Prime Minister Vajpayee warned his troops to prepare for a "decisive battle." Beginning on May 24 and lasting for several days, Pakistan carried out a series of missile tests. On June 7, an Indian UAV was shot down inside Pakistan near the city of Lahore.

At the same time, attempts to defuse the situation continued. Alarmed at the possibility of nuclear war, the US ordered all non-essential citizens to leave India on May 31. Both Vajpayee and Musharraf blamed each other for the standoff, and a visit by Russian President Vladimir Putin could not mediate a solution. But by mid-June, the Indian government accepted Musharraf's pledge to end militant infiltration into India, and on June 10, air restrictions over India were ended and Indian warships removed from Pakistan's coast. [19]

While tensions remained high throughout the next few months, both governments began easing the situation in Kashmir. By October 2002, India and Pakistan had begun to demobilize their troops along their border, and in 2003 a cease-fire between the two nations was signed. No threat of conflict on such a grand scale has occurred again since 2002.

Cost of standoff

The Indian cost for the buildup was ₹ 21600 crore (US\$4.31 billion), while the Pakistani cost was estimated to be \$1.4 billion. Also it took India months to mobilize and lost 789 men in the process. Around 100 soldiers were killed in the initial phase of laying mines, another 250 were injured. The remaining casualties were a result of artillery duels with Pakistan and vehicle accidents. [20][]

Threat of nuclear war

As both India and Pakistan are armed with nuclear weapons, the possibility a conventional war could escalate into a nuclear one were raised several times during the standoff. Various statements on this subject were made by Indian and Pakistani officials during the conflict, mainly concerning a no first use policy. Indian Foreign Affairs Minister Jaswant Singh said on June 5 that India would not use nuclear weapons first, [21] while Musharraf said on June 5 he would not renounce Pakistan's right to use nuclear weapons first. [22] The possession of nuclear weapons by both

parties proved a decisive factor in preventing all out war.^[23] A Defense Intelligence Agency report in May 2002 estimated that a nuclear war between India and Pakistan could, in a worst-case scenario, lead to 8–12 million deaths initially and millions more later from radiation poisoning.^[18]

There was also concern that a June 6, 2002 asteroid explosion over Earth, known as the Eastern Mediterranean Event, could have caused a nuclear conflict had it exploded over India or Pakistan.^[24]

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India-Pakistan maritime trespassing

India-Pakistan maritime trespassing refers to the frequent trespassing and violation of respective national territorial waters of India and Pakistan in peacetime. Most trespassing is common to Pakistani and Indian fishermen operating along the coastline of the Indian state of Gujarat and the Pakistani province of Sindh. Most violations occur due to the absence of a physical boundary and lack of navigational tools for small fishermen. Hundreds of fishermen are arrested by the Coast Guards of both nations, but obtaining their release is difficult and long-winded owing to the hostile relations between the two nations.

Patrolling and arrests

The long-standing territorial disputes and military conflicts between India and Pakistan have led to vigilant and strict patrolling of territorial waters in the



The Sir Creek area. The Green Line is the boundary as claimed by Pakistan, the red line is the boundary as claimed by India. The black line is the undisputed section.

Arabian Sea and the coastline shared along the Indian state of Gujarat and the Pakistani province of Sind by the Maritime Security Agency of Pakistan and the Indian Coast Guard. The absence of a physical boundary and lack of proper demarcation leaves small fishing boats and trawlers susceptible to illegally crossing territorial waters.^[1] The problem is aggravated by the dispute over the Sir Creek in Kutch and the failure to officially determine the maritime boundary between the two nations.^[2] Most local fishermen possess no navigational tools and are unable or incapable of determine their location by longitudes or latitudes.^{[3][1]}

Obtaining release

For most of the time, the situation of imprisoned fishermen remained unknown to their home countries and people. Coastal villages often report the disappearance of fishing boats and fishermen from their village but their whereabouts remain unclear for many years. ^{[2][3]} Indian authorities estimate that more than 100 fishing boats and admit that they often cannot ascertain how many fishermen had strayed. ^[3] Most fishermen who are arrested are denied basic legal rights and given treatment usually accorded to prisoners of war. ^[2] Some NGOs and human rights organisations have worked to petition both governments and represent the families of imprisoned fishermen, but with limited success. ^[2]

During periods of improvement in bilateral relations, the governments of both nations have taken steps to release imprisoned fishermen as a confidence-building measure and gestures of peace and goodwill. Both nations have also recently established a joint judicial committee, composing of four retired judges from either nation to resolve the disputes and obtain the release of imprisoned fishermen. The committee has enabled the exchanging of lists of fishermen and other civilian prisoners being held in jails of India and Pakistan and providing consular access to those still imprisoned. In 2006, Pakistan released more than 400 Indian fishermen (including 30 children) and India reciprocated by releasing 130 Pakistani fishermen, but claimed that as many as 350 fishermen were still languishing in Pakistani jails. However, there remains much distrust and inertia in processes to obtain the release of fishermen, and both governments have exchanged accusations of the lack of legal rights and access for their citizens and the absence of cooperation on ascertaining rival claims on the number of fishermen imprisoned and obtaining their release.

Preventive measures

The Indian government has undertaken a census of fishermen in western Gujarat, preparing a database of information on fishermen and their boats to be used for more effective monitoring of fishing activities in Indian territorial waters alongside Pakistan and to prevent boats from straying into Pakistani waters. ^[3] The Indian Coast Guard has also begun installing tracking devices in fishing boats operating in the waters off western Gujarat to maintain surveillance and to stop them from staying into Pakistani waters. ^[3] Developed by the Indian Space Research Organisation, the tracking device has the ability to send out alerts for fires on board, a sinking vessel, a medical emergency and when the boat is apprehended by another country. ^[3]

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Incidents

Atlantique Incident

The **Atlantique Incident** was an event in which a Pakistan Navy's Naval Air Arm Breguet Atlantique patrol plane, carrying 16 people on board, was shot down by the Indian Air Force for alleged violation of airspace. The episode took place in the Rann of Kutch on August 10, 1999, just a month after the Kargil War, creating a tense atmosphere between India and Pakistan.

Foreign diplomats noted that the plane fell inside Pakistani territory, although it may have crossed the border. However, they also believe that India's reaction was unjustified. Pakistan later lodged a compensation claim at the International Court of Justice, accusing India for the incident, but the court dismissed the case, ruling that the court had no jurisdiction in this matter. [2][3][4]

Confrontation

The French-built naval plane Breguet Atlantique (Breguet Br.1150 Atlantique) plane, flight **Atlantic-91**, c/n 33, of 29 Squadron ^[5] was one of Pakistan Navy's frontline aircraft, used primarily for patrol and reconnaissance. Atlantic-91 left Mehran (Sindh province) Naval Base in Pakistan at 9:15 a.m. (PST). An Indian Air Force ground radar picked up the flight path of the plane approaching the International Border. ^[6] Two IAF MiG-21 interceptor aircraft of No.45 Squadron, from the Indian airbase at Naliya in the Kutch region, were soon scrambled by the Indian Air Force. ^[7] After a series of maneuvers—and a conflicting version of events from both sides—the two jets were given clearance to shoot down the Pakistani plane. ^[6] At 11:17 a.m. IST (10:47 a.m. PST), nearly two hours after takeoff from Pakistan, the Atlantique was intercepted and an infrared homing R-60 air-to-air missile was fired at it by Squadron Leader P.K. Bundela, hitting the engine on the port side of the plane. ^[8] This resulted in the aircraft losing control and spiraling towards a crash at approximately 1100 hours PST and approximate location 23°54′N 68°16′E, killing all 16 on board the Atlantic-91, including five officers of the Pakistan Navy.

The incident was the Pakistan Navy's only loss of an aircraft to hostile fire in its history, and the biggest combat-related casualty for the navy since the Indo-Pakistani War of 1971.

Claims and counterclaims

The event immediately sparked claims and counter-claims by both nations. Pakistan claimed that the plane was unarmed and the debris was found on Pakistan's side of the border, and there was no violation of Indian airspace. According to the official Pakistan version of events, the plane was on routine training mission inside Pakistan air space. The Pakistani Prime Minister stated during the funeral service of the airmen that the shooting was a barbaric act.



The Indian Air force, however, claimed that the airplane did not respond to international protocol and that the plane acted in a "hostile" manner, [12][13] adding that the debris of a downed aircraft could fall over a wide radius. [14] Indian sources also state that the Pakistani Information Minister, Mushahid Hussein, was initially quoted saying that the aircraft was on a surveillance mission. [14] India also accused that the plane violated a bilateral agreement signed between India and Pakistan in 1991. The treaty states that no military aircraft is supposed to come anywhere near 10 km from the border^[15] (although Pakistan claimed the Atlantique wasn't a combat aircraft).^[1] Indian experts also questioned why a training mission was being done so close to international borders, since all air forces clearly demarcate training areas for flight, which are located well away from the borders. [16] According to them, the Pakistani claim was untenable since



Enlarged map of the region showing Sir Creek and Kori Creek area where the plane was shot down and wreckage was found

the primary role of the Atlantique is for operations over the sea and that to carry out a training flight over land deep inside foreign territory was an indication of its use in a surveillance role. ^[16] India displayed part of the wreckage of the Pakistani naval aircraft at New Delhi airport the next day. Pakistan however, stated that the wreckage was removed from its side of the border by Indian helicopters. ^[9]

While Pakistan said that the plane was unarmed and the debris was within Pakistani territory, India maintained that warnings had been given to the Atlantique and that its flight trajectory meant it could have fallen on either side of the border. According to the Indian version of events, the MiGs tried to escort it to a nearby Indian base, when the Pakistani aircraft turned abruptly and tried to make a dash for the border; it was only then that it was fired upon. India claimed that the debris was found in a radius of 2 km on either side of the border and that the intrusion took

place 10 km inside the Kori Creek, which is Indian territory. Pakistan requested that the matter be taken up in the UN. Indian officials blamed that there had been previous violations in the area and pointed out that in the previous year a Pakistani unmanned surveillance aircraft had intruded 150 km inside the Indian border, coming close to the Bhuj air base before the IAF spotted it and brought it down with several missiles.^[14]

Indian analysts state "flare-ups" in the Rann of Kutch region were routine, and despite bilateral agreements, both Indian and Pakistan had conducted air intrusions in the past. Thus, the fact that the Atlantique was shot down, despite coming close to the Indian border, came as a surprise. ^[14] Indian officials add that Pakistan military aircraft had violated Indian airspace at least 50 times since January 1999, showing videotapes of Pakistani Atlantiques "buzzing", or flying provocatively near the Indian Navy's warships in the Indian Ocean. ^[17] Some Indian analysts stated that the Atlantique was nearly destroyed in 1983 on a similar encounter and noted other close encounters and violations from Pakistani naval planes. ^{[18][19][20]}

Some experts stated that the Atlantique was probably conducting a "probe" on India's air defence system, mainly the radar equipment in the border area; however, they advised that it was not part of any planned aggressive military action by Pakistan. [17] Foreign diplomats who visited the crash site noted that the plane "may have strayed into restricted space", and that Islamabad was unable to explain why it was flying so close to the border; they however added that India's reaction to the incident was not justified. [1] Many countries, the G8, the permanent members of the UN Security Council, as well as the western media questioned the wisdom behind Pakistan's decision to fly military aircraft so close to the Indian border.

Rise in tensions

On the day following the attack, an IAF helicopter carrying journalists to the site of the attack was attacked by the Pakistan Army with a surface-to-air missile. Pakistani officials asserted that two Indian jets had intruded into Pakistani airspace near the Atlantique wreckage site, along the border between the Indian state of Gujarat and Pakistan's Sindh Province, and were then fired upon by Pakistan. International and Indian television journalists traveling in the chopper said the aircraft shook severely and a flash appeared in the air, suggesting a missile had been fired at it.^[21] The IAF thus aborted their mission to display Atlantique wreckage on Indian soil.^[17]

Following this, and the rising tensions in the area coupled by the fact that the Sir Creek was a disputed territory, both the countries' militaries near the Rann of Kutch and nearby were put on high alert.^[11] Pakistan sent a company of soldiers, equipped with both laser guided and infrared homing shoulder-fired surface-to-air missiles, to the site near the border.^[22] Coming barely weeks after the Kargil Conflict where both nuclear armed countries fought high altitude warfare, this incident was seen with growing concern around the world. The U.S. State Department termed the subcontinent as being in a state of "continued high-stakes tension."^[11]

Lawsuit

On September 21, 1999, Pakistan lodged a compensation claim at the International Court of Justice (ICJ) in The Hague, accusing India of shooting down an unarmed aircraft. Pakistan sought about \$60 million in reparations from India and compensation for the victims' families. India's attorney general, Soli Sorabjee, argued that the court did not have jurisdiction, [23] citing an exemption it filed in 1974 to exclude disputes between India and other Commonwealth States, and disputes covered multi-lateral treaties. [24] In the buildup to the case, India also contended that Pakistan had violated the 1991 bilateral agreement between Pakistan and India on air violations, which states: "Combat aircraft (including, Bombers, Reconnaissance aircrafts, Jet military trainers and Armed



The International Court of Justice dismissed Pakistan's case on the grounds that the court did not have jurisdiction.

helicopters) will not fly within 10 km of each other's airspace including Air Defense Identification Zone." [15]

On June 21, 2000, the 16-judge Bench headed by Gilbert Guillaume of France ruled—with a 14–2 verdict—upholding India's submission that the court had no jurisdiction in this matter. [2][25] Pakistan's claims were dropped, without recourse to appeal, and the outcome was seen as a decision highly favourable to India. [3][4][26] The Pakistan government had spent close to 25 million Pakistani rupees (approx. \$400,000) on the case. [27]

Aftermath

The next day, Pakistan fired missiles on one of the three helicopters carrying journalists into the region. Pakistan said that it fired on Indian fighter jets that were escorting the helicopters and had come inside Pakistani territory.^[1]

In India, the incident made the two pilots of the MiG-21s into instant heroes.^{[14][28]} On October 8, 2000, the prestigious Vayusena medal was awarded to Squadron Leader P.K. Bundela. The medal was also awarded to Wing Commander V.S. Sharma (the fighter controller who tracked the Atlantique, guided the pilot and ordered him to attack the plane) and Squadron Leader Pankaj Vishnoi, the helicopter pilot who recovered a part of the Atlantique's debris from the marshy border regions of the Rann.^[29]

The downing of the Pakistani aircraft came at a particularly bad juncture for the Pakistani Prime Minister, Nawaz Sharif, who was already under attack from politicians for ordering a withdrawal of its troops from Kargil. Two months later he was deposed in a bloodless coup d'état by Gen. Pervez Musharraf.

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2008 Mumbai attacks

2008 Mumbai attacks	
Cama Hospital Rail Terminus Oberoi Trident hotel Leopold Cafe Taj Mahal hotel Mumbai Chabad House	
Map of the 2008 Mumbai attacks	
Date	26 November 2008 – 29 November 2008 (IST, UTC+05:30)
Attack type	Bombings, shootings, hostage crisis, [1] siege
Deaths	Approximately 164-195 (including 10 attackers) ^[2]
Injured	More than 308 ^[2]
Perpetrators	Lashkar-e-Taiba led by Hafiz Muhammad Saeed [3][4]

The **2008 Mumbai attacks** (sometimes referred to as **26/11**) were 11 coordinated shooting and bombing attacks across Mumbai, India's largest city, by Islamist terrorists^{[5][6]} who came from Pakistan.^[7] The attackers allegedly received reconnaissance assistance before the attacks. Ajmal Kasab, the only attacker who was captured alive later confessed upon interrogation that the attacks were conducted with the support of Pakistan's ISI.^{[8][9]} The attacks, which drew widespread global condemnation, began on Wednesday, 26 November and lasted until Saturday, 29 November 2008, killing 164 people and wounding at least 308.^{[2][10]}

Eight of the attacks occurred in South Mumbai: at Chhatrapati Shivaji Terminus, the Oberoi Trident, [11] the Taj Mahal Palace & Tower, [12] Leopold Cafe, Cama Hospital (a women and children's hospital), [1] the Nariman House Jewish community centre, [12] the Metro Cinema, [13] and a lane behind the *Times of India* building and St. Xavier's College. [13] There was also an explosion at Mazagaon, in Mumbai's port area, and in a taxi at Vile Parle. [14] By the early morning of 28 November, all sites except for the Taj hotel had been secured by Mumbai Police and security forces. On 29 November, India's National Security Guards (NSG) conducted **Operation Black Tornado** to flush out the remaining attackers; it resulted in the deaths of the last remaining attackers at the Taj hotel and ending all fighting in the attacks. [15]

Ajmal Kasab^[16] disclosed that the attackers were members of Lashkar-e-Taiba, the Pakistan-based militant organisation, considered a terrorist organisation by India, Pakistan, the United States, the United Kingdom, and the United Nations,^[17] among others.^[18] The Indian government said that the attackers came from Pakistan, and their controllers were in Pakistan.^[19] On 7 January 2009,^[20] Pakistan's Information Minister Sherry Rehman officially accepted Ajmal Kasab's nationality as Pakistani.^[21] On 12 February 2009, Pakistan's Interior Minister Rehman Malik asserted that parts of the attack had been planned in Pakistan.^[22] A trial court on 6 May 2010 sentenced Ajmal Kasab to death on five counts.

Background

There have been many bombings in Mumbai since the 13 coordinated bomb explosions that killed 257 people and injured 700 on 12 March 1993. [23] The 1993 attacks are believed to have been in retaliation for the Babri Mosque demolition. [24]

On 6 December 2002, a blast in a BEST bus near Ghatkopar station killed two people and injured 28. [25] The bombing occurred on the tenth anniversary of the demolition of the Babri Mosque in Ayodhya. [26] A bicycle bomb exploded near the Vile Parle station in Mumbai, killing one person and injuring 25 on 27 January 2003, a day before the visit of the Prime Minister of India Atal Bihari Vajpayee to the city. [27] On 13 March 2003, a day after the tenth anniversary of the 1993 Bombay bombings, a bomb exploded in a train compartment near the Mulund station, killing 10 people and injuring 70. [28] On 28 July 2003, a blast in a BEST bus in



One of the bomb-damaged coaches at the Mahim station in Mumbai during the 11 July 2006 train bombings

Ghatkopar killed 4 people and injured 32.^[29] On 25 August 2003, two bombs exploded in South Mumbai, one near the Gateway of India and the other at Zaveri Bazaar in Kalbadevi. At least 44 people were killed and 150 injured.^[30] On 11 July 2006, seven bombs exploded within 11 minutes on the Suburban Railway in Mumbai.^[31] 209 people were killed, including 22 foreigners^{[32][33]} and over 700 injured.^{[34][35]} According to the Mumbai Police, the bombings were carried out by Lashkar-e-Taiba and Students Islamic Movement of India (SIMI).^{[36][37]}

Attacks

The first events were detailed around 20:00 Indian Standard Time (IST) on 26 November, when 10 men in inflatable speedboats came ashore at two locations in Colaba. They reportedly told local Marathi-speaking fishermen who asked them who they were to "mind their own business" before they split up and headed two different ways. The fishermen's subsequent report to police received little response. [38]

Chhatrapati Shivaji Terminus

The Chhatrapati Shivaji Terminus (CST) was attacked by two gunmen, one of whom, Ajmal Kasab, was later caught alive by the police and identified by eyewitnesses. The attacks began around 21:30 when the two men entered the passenger hall and opened fire, [39] using AK-47 rifles. [40] The attackers killed 58 people and injured 104 others, [40] their assault ending at about 22:45. [39] Security forces and emergency services arrived shortly afterwards. The two gunmen fled the scene and fired at pedestrians and police officers in the streets, killing eight police officers. The attackers passed a police station. Many of the outgunned police officers were afraid to confront the attackers, and instead switched off the lights and secured the gates. The attackers then headed towards Cama Hospital with an intention to kill patients, [41] but



Bullet marks on the wall of the suburban terminus at CST

the hospital staff locked all of the patient wards. A team of the Mumbai Anti-Terrorist Squad led by police chief Hemant Karkare searched the Chhatrapati Shivaji Terminus and then left in pursuit of Kasab and Khan. Kasab and Khan opened fire on the vehicle in a lane next to the hospital and the police returned fire. Karkare, Vijay Salaskar,

Ashok Kamte and one of their officers were killed, though the only survivor, Constable Arun Jadhav, was wounded. [42] Kasab and Khan seized the police vehicle but later abandoned it and seized a passenger car instead. They then ran into a police roadblock, which had been set up after Jadhav radioed for help. [43] A gun battle then ensued in which Khan was killed and Kasab was wounded. After a physical struggle, Kasab was arrested. [44] A police officer, Tukaram Omble was also killed.

Leopold Cafe

The Leopold Cafe, a popular restaurant and bar on Colaba Causeway in South Mumbai, was one of the first sites to be attacked. [45] Two attackers opened fire on the cafe on the evening of 26 November, killing at least 10 people (including some foreigners), and injuring many more. [46] The attackers fired into the street as they fled the scene.



Bullet marks left at Leopold Cafe

Bomb blasts in taxis

There were two explosions in taxis caused by timer bombs. The first one occurred at 22:40 at Vile Parle, killing the driver and a passenger. The second explosion took place at Wadi Bunder between 22:20 and 22:25. Three people including the driver of the taxi were killed, and about 15 other people were injured.[14][47]

Taj Mahal Hotel and Oberoi Trident

Two hotels, the Taj Mahal Palace & Tower and the Oberoi Trident, were amongst the four locations targeted. Six explosions were reported at the Taj hotel - one in the lobby, two in the elevators, three in the restaurant - and one at the Oberoi Trident. [48][49] At the Taj Mahal, firefighters rescued 200 hostages from windows using ladders during the first night.

CNN initially reported on the morning of 27 November 2008 that the hostage situation at the Taj had been resolved and quoted the police chief of Maharashtra stating that all hostages were freed; [50] however. it was learned later that day that there were still two attackers holding hostages, including foreigners, in the Taj Mahal hotel. [51]





The Wasabi restaurant on the first floor of the Taj Hotel was completely gutted.

During the attacks, both hotels were surrounded by Rapid Action Force personnel and Marine Commandos (MARCOS) and National Security Guards (NSG) commandos. [52][53] When reports emerged that attackers were receiving television broadcasts, feeds to the hotels were blocked. [54] Security forces stormed both hotels, and all nine attackers were killed by the morning of 29 November. [55][56] Major Sandeep Unnikrishnan of the NSG was killed during the rescue of Commando Sunil Yadav, who was hit in the leg by a bullet during the rescue operations at Taj. [57][58] 32 hostages were killed at the Oberoi Trident. [59]

A number of European Parliament Committee on International Trade delegates were staying in the Taj Mahal hotel when it was attacked, but none of them were injured. British Conservative Member of the European Parliament (MEP) Sajjad Karim (who was in the lobby when attackers initially opened fire there) and German Social Democrat MEP Erika Mann were hiding in different parts of the building. Also reported present was Spanish MEP Ignasi Guardans, who was

barricaded in a hotel room. [63][64] Another British Conservative MEP, Syed Kamall, reported that he along with several other MEPs left the hotel and went to a nearby restaurant shortly before the attack. [62] Kamall also reported that Polish MEP Jan Masiel was thought to have been sleeping in his hotel room when the attacks started, but eventually left the hotel safely. [65] Kamall and Guardans reported that a Hungarian MEP's assistant was shot. [62][66] Also caught up in the shooting were the President of Madrid, Esperanza Aguirre, while checking in at the Oberoi Trident, [66] and Indian MP N. N. Krishnadas of Kerala and Sir Gulam Noon while having dinner at a restaurant in the Taj hotel. [67][68]

Nariman House

Nariman House, a Chabad Lubavitch Jewish center in Colaba known as the Mumbai Chabad House, was taken over by two attackers and several residents were held hostage. Police evacuated adjacent buildings and exchanged fire with the attackers, wounding one. Local residents were told to stay inside. The attackers threw a grenade into a nearby lane, causing no casualties. NSG commandos arrived from Delhi, and a Naval helicopter took an aerial survey. During the first day, 9 hostages were rescued from the first floor. The following day, the house was stormed by NSG commandos fast-roping from helicopters onto the roof, covered by snipers positioned in nearby buildings. After a long battle, one NSG commando Havaldar Gajender Singh Bisht and both perpetrators were killed. Rabbi Gavriel Holtzberg and his wife Rivka Holtzberg, who was six months pregnant, were murdered with four other hostages inside the house by the attackers.

According to radio transmissions picked up by Indian intelligence, the attackers "would be told by their handlers in Pakistan that the lives of



Front view of the Nariman House a week after the attacks

Jews were worth 50 times those of non-Jews." Injuries reported on some of the bodies indicate they may have been tortured. [72][73]

End of the attacks

By the morning of 27 November, the army had secured the Jewish outreach center at Nariman House as well as the Oberoi Trident hotel. They also incorrectly believed that the Taj Mahal Palace and Towers had been cleared of attackers, and soldiers were leading hostages and holed-up guests to safety, and removing bodies of those killed in the attacks. [74][75][76] However, later news reports indicated that there were still two or three attackers in the Taj, with explosions heard and gunfire exchanged. Fires were also reported at the ground floor of the Taj with plumes of smoke arising from the first floor. The final operation at the Taj Mahal Palace hotel was completed by the NSG commandos at 08:00 on 29 November, killing three attackers and resulting in the conclusion of the attacks. The security forces rescued 250 people from the Oberoi, 300 from the Taj and 60 people (members of 12 different families) from Nariman House. In addition, police seized a boat filled with arms and explosives anchored at Mazgaon dock off Mumbai harbour.

Attribution

The Mumbai attacks were planned and directed by Lashkar-e-Taiba militants inside Pakistan, and carried out by ten young armed men trained and sent to Mumbai and directed from inside Pakistan via mobile phones and VoIP [7][80][81]

In July 2009 Pakistani authorities confirmed that LeT plotted and financed the attacks from LeT camps in Karachi and Thatta. ^[82] In November 2009, Pakistani authorities charged seven men they had arrested earlier, of planning and executing the assault. ^[83]

Mumbai police originally identified 37 suspects – including two army officers – for their alleged involvement in the plot. All but two of the suspects, many of whom are identified only through aliases, are Pakistani. [84] Two more suspects arrested in the United States in October 2009 for other attacks were also found to have been involved in planning the Mumbai attacks. [85][86] One of these men, Pakistani American David Headley, was found to have made several trips to India before the attacks and gathered video and GPS information on behalf of the plotters.

In April 2011, the United States issued arrest warrants for four Pakistani men as suspects in the attack. The men, Sajid Mir, Abu Qahafa, Mazhar Iqbal, and alias "Major Iqbal", are believed to be members of Lashkar-e-Taiba and helped plan and train the attackers. [87]

Negotiations with Pakistan

Pakistan initially denied that Pakistanis were responsible for the attacks, blaming plotters in Bangladesh and Indian criminals, [88] a claim refuted by India, [89] and saying they needed information from India on other bombings first. [90] Pakistani authorities finally agreed that Ajmal Kasab was a Pakistani on 7 January 2009, [20][91][92] and registered a case against three other Pakistani nationals. [93]

The Indian government supplied evidence to Pakistan and other governments, in the form of interrogations, weapons, and call records of conversations during the attacks. [3][94] In addition, Indian government officials said that the attacks were so sophisticated that they must have had official backing from Pakistani "agencies", an accusation denied by Pakistan. [81][91]

Under US and UN pressure, Pakistan arrested a few members of Jamaat ud-Dawa and briefly put its founder under house arrest, but he was found to be free a few days later. A year after the attacks, Mumbai police continued to complain that Pakistani authorities are not cooperating by providing information for their investigation. Meanwhile, journalists in Pakistan said security agencies were preventing them from interviewing people from Kasab's village. Home Minister P. Chidambaram said the Pakistani authorities had not shared any information about American suspects Headley and Rana, but that the FBI had been more forthcoming.

An Indian report, summarising intelligence gained from India's interrogation of David Headley, [100] was released in October 2010. It alleged that Pakistan's intelligence agency (ISI) had provided support for the attacks by providing

funding for reconnaissance missions in Mumbai. The report included Headley's claim that Lashkar-e-Taiba's chief military commander, Zaki-ur-Rahman Lakhvi, had close ties to the ISI. He alleged that "every big action of LeT is done in close coordination with [the] ISI. [101]

Investigation



Police looking for attackers outside Colaba

According to investigations, the attackers travelled by sea from Karachi, Pakistan, across the Arabian Sea, hijacked the Indian fishing trawler 'Kuber', killed the crew of four, then forced the captain to sail to Mumbai. After murdering the captain, the attackers entered Mumbai on a rubber dinghy. The captain of 'Kuber', Amar Singh Solanki, had earlier been imprisoned for six months in a Pakistani jail for illegally fishing in Pakistani waters. [102] The attackers stayed and were trained by the Lashkar-e-Taiba in a safehouse at Azizabad near Karachi before boarding a small boat for Mumbai. [103]

David Headley was a member of Lashkar-e-Taiba, and between 2002 and 2009 Headley travelled extensively as part of his work for LeT. Headley received training in small arms and countersurveillance from LeT, built a network of connections for the group, and was chief scout in scoping out targets for Mumbai attack^{[104][105]} having allegedly been given \$25,000 in cash in 2006 by an ISI officer known as Major Iqbal, The officer also helped him arrange a communications system for the attack, and oversaw a model of the Taj Mahal Hotel so that gunmen could know their way inside the target, according to Headley's testimony to Indian authorities. Headley also helped ISI recruit Indian agents to monitor Indian troop levels and movements, according to a US official. At the same time, Headley was also an informant for the U.S. Drug Enforcement Administration, and Headley's wives warned American officials of Headley's involvement with LeT and his plotting attacks, warning specifically that the Taj Mahal Hotel may be their target. ^[104]

US officials believed that the Inter-Services Intelligence (I.S.I.) officers provided support to Lashkar-e-Taiba militants who carried out the attacks. ^[106]

Method

The attackers had planned the attack several months ahead of time and knew some areas well enough for the attackers to vanish, and reappear after security forces had left. Several sources have quoted Kasab telling the police that the group received help from Mumbai residents. [107][108] The attackers used at least three SIM cards purchased on the Indian side of the border with Bangladesh. [109] There were also reports of a SIM card purchased in the US state New Jersey. [110] Police had also mentioned that Faheem Ansari, an Indian Lashkar operative who had been arrested in February 2008, had scouted the Mumbai targets for the November attacks. [111] Later, the police arrested two Indian suspects, Mikhtar Ahmad, who is from Srinagar in Kashmir, and Tausif Rehman, a resident of Kolkata. They supplied the SIM cards, one in Calcutta, and the other in New Delhi. [112]

Type 86 Grenades made by China's state-owned Norinco were used in the attacks. [113]

Blood tests on the attackers indicate that they had taken cocaine and LSD during the attacks, to sustain their energy and stay awake for 50 hours. Police say that they found syringes on the scenes of the attacks. There were also indications that they had been taking steroids. [114] The gunman who survived said that the attackers had used Google Earth to familiarise themselves with the locations of buildings used in the attacks. [115]

There were ten gunmen, nine of whom were subsequently shot dead and one captured by security forces. [116][117] Witnesses reported that they looked to be in their early twenties, wore black t-shirts and jeans, and that they smiled and looked happy as they shot their victims. [118]

It was initially reported that some of the attackers were British citizens, ^{[119][120]} but the Indian government later stated that there was no evidence to confirm this. ^[121] Similarly, early reports of twelve gunmen ^[122] were also later shown to be incorrect. ^[3]

On 9 December, the ten attackers were identified by Mumbai police, along with their home towns in Pakistan: Ajmal Amir from Faridkot, Abu Ismail Dera Ismail Khan from Dera Ismail Khan, Hafiz Arshad and Babr Imran from Multan, Javed from Okara, Shoaib from Narowal, Nazih and Nasr from Faisalabad, Abdul Rahman from Arifwalla, and Fahad Ullah from Dipalpur Taluka. Dera Ismail Khan is in the North-West Frontier Province; the rest of the towns are in Pakistani Punjab. [123]

On 6 April 2010, the Home minister of Maharashtra State, which includes Mumbai, informed the assembly that the bodies of the nine killed Pakistani gunmen from the 2008 attack on Mumbai were buried in a secret location in January 2010. The bodies had been in the mortuary of a Mumbai hospital after Muslim clerics in the city refused to let them be buried on their grounds. [124]

Arrests

Ajmal Kasab was the only attacker arrested alive by police and is currently under arrest. [125] Much of the information about the attackers' preparation, travel, and movements comes from his confessions to the Mumbai police. [126]

On 12 February 2009 Pakistan's Interior Minister Rehman Malik said that Pakistani national Javed Iqbal, who acquired VoIP phones in Spain for the Mumbai attackers, and Hamad Ameen Sadiq, who had facilitated money transfer for the attack, had been arrested. [93] Two other men known as Khan and Riaz, but whose full names were not given, were also arrested. [127] Two Pakistanis were arrested in Brescia, Italy (north-west of Milan), on 21 November 2009, after being accused of providing logistical support to the attacks and transferring over US\$200 to internet accounts using a false ID. [128][129] They had Red Corner Notices issued against them by Interpol for their suspected involvement and it was issued after the last year's strikes. [130]

In October 2009, two Chicago men were arrested and charged by the FBI for involvement in terrorism abroad, David Coleman Headley and Tahawwur Hussain Rana. Headley, a Pakistani-American, was charged in November 2009 with scouting locations for the 2008 Mumbai attacks. [131][132] Headley is reported to have posed as an American Jew and is believed to have links with militant Islamist groups based in Bangladesh. [133] On 18 March 2010, Headley pled guilty to a dozen charges against him thereby avoiding going to trial.

In December 2009, the FBI charged Abdur Rehman Hashim Syed, a retired major in the Pakistani army, for planning the terror attacks in association with Headley. [134]

On 15 January 2010, in a successful snatch operation R&AW agents nabbed Sheikh Abdul Khwaja, one of the handlers of the 26/11 attacks, chief of HuJI India operations and a most wanted terror suspect in India, from Colombo, Sri Lanka, and brought him over to Hyderabad, India for formal arrest. [135]

Casualties and compensation

At least 166 victims (civilians and security personnel) and nine attackers were killed in the attacks. Among the dead were 28 foreign nationals from 10 countries. [2][50][136][137][138] One attacker was captured. [139] The bodies of many of the dead hostages showed signs of torture or disfigurement. [140] A number of those killed were notable figures in business, media, and security services. [141][142][143]

The government of Maharashtra announced about $\not\equiv$ 500000 (US\$9975) as compensation to the kin of each of those killed in the terror attacks and about $\not\equiv$ 50000 (US\$997.5) to the seriously injured. In August 2009, *Indian Hotels Company* and the *Oberoi Group* received about \$28 million USD as part-payment of the insurance claims, on account of the attacks on *Taj Mahal* and *Trident*, from *General Insurance Corporation of India*. [145]

Aftermath

The attacks are sometimes referred to in India as "26/11", after the date in 2008 that they began and the nomenclature behind the 9/11 attacks (akin to that of the 3/11 attack in Madrid). The Pradhan Inquiry Commission, appointed by the Maharashtra government, produced a report that was tabled before the legislative assembly over one year after the events. The report said the "war-like" attack was beyond the capacity of any police force, but it also found fault with the Mumbai Police Commissionaer Hasan Gafoor's lack of leadership during the crisis. [146]

The Maharashtra government planned to buy 36 speed boats to patrol the coastal areas and several helicopters for the same purpose. It also planned to create an anti-terror force called "Force One" and upgrade all the weapons that Mumbai police currently have. Prime Minister Manmohan Singh on an all-party conference declared that legal framework would be strengthened in the battle against terrorism and a federal anti-terrorist intelligence and investigation agency, like the FBI, will be set up soon to coordinate action against terrorism. ^[148] The government strengthened anti-terror laws with UAPA 2008, and the federal National Investigation Agency was formed.

The attacks further strained India's slowly recovering relationship with Pakistan. External Affairs Minister Pranab Mukherjee declared that India may indulge in military strikes against terror camps in Pakistan to protect its territorial integrity. There were also after-effects on the United States's relationships with both countries, [149] the US-led NATO war in Afghanistan, [150] and on the Global War on Terror. [151] FBI chief Robert Mueller praised the "unprecedented cooperation" between American and Indian intelligence agencies over Mumbai terror attack probe. [152] Interpol secretary general Ronald Noble indicated Indian intelligence agencies did not share any information with them. [153]

Movement of troops

Pakistan moved troops towards the border with India border voicing concerns about the Indian government's possible plans to launch attacks on Pakistani soil if it did not cooperate. After days of talks, the Pakistan government, however, decided to start moving troops away from the border. [154]

Reactions

Indians criticised their political leaders after the attacks, saying that their ineptness was partly responsible. The Times of India commented on its front page that "Our politicians fiddle as innocents die." [155] Political reactions in Mumbai and India included a range of resignations and political changes, including the resignations of Minister for Home Affairs Shivraj Patil, [156] Chief Minister Vilasrao Deshmukh^[157] and Deputy Chief Minister R. R. Patil^[158] for controversial reactions to the attack including taking the former's son and Bollywood director Ram Gopal Verma to tour the damaged Taj Mahal and the latters remarks that the attacks were not a big deal in such a large city. Prominent Muslim personalities such as Bollywood actor Aamir Khan appealed to their community members in the country to observe Eid al-Adha as a day of mourning on 9 December. [159] The business establishment also reacted, with changes to transport, and requests for an increase in self-defense capabilities. [160] The attacks also triggered a chain of citizens' movements across India such as the India Today Group's "War Against Terror" campaign. There were



Candlelight vigils at the Gateway of India in Mumbai

vigils held across all of India with candles and placards commemorating the victims of the attacks. The NSG commandos based in Delhi also met criticism for taking 10 hours to reach the 3 sites under attack.



Few citizens outside the Taj Mahal Palace and Tower hotel demanded the government to act.

International reaction for the attacks was widespread, with many countries and international organisations condemning the attacks and expressing their condolences to the civilian victims. Many important personalities around the world also condemned the attacks.^[164]

Media coverage highlighted the use of social media and Internet social networking tools, including *Twitter* and *Flickr*, in spreading information about the attacks. In addition, many Indian bloggers and *Wikipedia* offered live textual coverage of the attacks. [165] A map of the attacks was set up by a web journalist using Google Maps. [166][167] The New York Times, in July 2009, described the

event as "what may be the most well-documented terrorist attack anywhere." [168]

In November 2010, families of American victims of the attacks filed a lawsuit in Brooklyn, New York, naming Lt. Gen. Ahmed Shuja Pasha, chief of the I.S.I., as being complicit in the Mumbai attacks. On 22 September 2011, the attack on the American Embassy in Afghanistan, was attributed to Pakistan via cell phone records identical to the attacks in Mumbai, also linked to Pakistan. The investigation continues. [106]

Trials

Kasab's trial

Kasab's trial was delayed due to legal issues, as many Indian lawyers were unwilling to represent him. A Mumbai Bar Association passed a resolution proclaiming that none of its members would represent Kasab. However, the Chief Justice of India stated that Kasab needed a lawyer for a fair trial. A lawyer for Kasab was eventually found, but was replaced due to a conflict of interest. On 25 February 2009, Indian investigators filed an 11,000-page chargesheet, formally charging Kasab with murder, conspiracy, and waging war against India among other charges.

Kasab's trial began on 6 May 2009. He initially pleaded not guilty, but later admitted his guilt on 20 July 2009. He initially apologised for the attacks and claimed that he deserved the death penalty for his crimes, but later retracted these claims, saying that he had been tortured by police to force his confession, and that he had been arrested while roaming the beach. The court had accepted his plea, but due to the lack of completeness within his admittance, the judge had deemed that many of the 86 charges were not addressed and therefore the trial continued.

Kasab was convicted of all 86 charges on 3 May 2010. He was found guilty of murder for directly killing seven people, conspiracy to commit murder for the deaths of the 166 people killed in the three-day terror siege, waging war against India, causing terror, and of conspiracy to murder two high-ranking police officers. On 6 May 2010, he was sentenced to death by hanging. [169] [170] [171] [172] However, he appealed his sentence at high court. On 21 February 2011, the Bombay High Court upheld the death sentence of Kasab, dismissing his appeal. [173]

Trials in Pakistan

Indian and Pakistani police have exchanged DNA evidence, photographs and items found with the attackers to piece together a detailed portrait of the Mumbai plot. Police in Pakistan have arrested seven people, including Hammad Amin Sadiq, a homoeopathic pharmacist, who arranged bank accounts and secured supplies. Sadiq and six others begin their formal trial on 3 October 2009 in Pakistan, though Indian authorities say the prosecution stops well short of top Lashkar leaders. ^[174] In November 2009, Indian Prime Minister Manmohan Singh said that Pakistan has not done enough to bring the perpetrators of the attacks to justice. ^[175]

On the eve of the first anniversary of 26/11, a Pakistani anti-terror court formally charged seven accused, including LeT operations commander Zaki ur Rehman Lakhvi. However the actual trial started on 5th may 2012.

Trials in U.S.A.

The LeT operative David Headley in his testimony before a Chicago federal court during co-accused Tahawwur Rana's trial revealed that Mumbai Chabad House was added to the list of targets for surveillance given by his Inter Services Intelligence handler Major Iqbal, though the Oberoi hotel, one of the sites attacked, was not originally on the list. On 10 June 2011, Tahawwur Rana was acquitted of plotting the 2008 Mumbai attacks, but was held guilty on two other charges. [177]

Locations

All the incidents except the explosion at Vile Parle took place in downtown South Mumbai.

- Oberoi Trident at Nariman Point; 18°55'38"N 72°49'14"E
- Taj Mahal Palace & Tower near the Gateway of India; 18°55′18″N 72°50′00″E
- Leopold Cafe, a popular tourist restaurant in Colaba; 18°55′20″N 72°49′54″E
- Chhatrapati Shivaji Terminus (CST) railway station; 18°56′26″N 72°50′11″E (express train terminus), 18°56′26″N 72°50′07″E (suburban terminus)
- Badruddin Tayabji Lane behind the Times of India building.18°56′32″N 72°50′01″E
- Near St. Xavier's College 18°56′38″N 72°49′55″E.
- Cama and Albless Hospital; 18°56'34"N 72°49'59"E
- Nariman House (Chabad House) Jewish outreach center; 18°54′59″N 72°49′40″E
- Metro Cinema 18°56′35″N 72°49′46″E
- Mazagaon docks in Mumbai's port area;
- Vile Parle near the airport

Memorials

On the first anniversary of the event, the state paid homage to the victims of the attack. Force One—a new security force created by the Maharashtra government—staged a parade from Nariman Point to Chowpatty. Other memorials and candlelight vigils were also organised at the various locations where the attacks occurred. [178]

On the second anniversary of the event, homage was again paid to the victims.^[179] Security forces were also displayed from Nariman Point.

On the evening of 27 November 2011, a flash mob surfaced at the Chhatrapati Shivaji Terminus. The mob consisting of a group of 200 people danced to the *Rang De Basanti* title soundtrack with the intention of paying tribute to the victims of the attacks. [180][181]

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External links

- Two hundred Indian bloggers react to the attack on Mumbai (http://www.indiblogger.in/topic.php?topic=1)
- Channel 4 documentary by Dan Reed 'Terror in Mumbai' (http://europenews.dk/en/node/24746)
- Video showing the way in which Indian authorities fought back against the attackers. (http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=HCAXnXTMFOY) CNN-IBN (some Hindi, but mostly English).
- Dossier of evidence collected by investigating agencies of India (http://www.ndtv.com/convergence/ndtv/ MumbaiDossier/Mumbai-1-20-1st.htm)
- List of Blogs & Bloggers who were live blogging during the attacks (http://blog.blogadda.com/2008/11/27/live-blogging-mumbai-terrorist-attacks)
- If Each Of Us Had A Gun We Could Help Combat Terrorism Journalist Richard Munday talks about the horrific terrorist attacks in Mumbai, India (http://www.britainneedsguns.co.uk/media/If Each Of Us Had A Gun.pdf)

2011 India-Pakistan border shooting

The **2011 India–Pakistan border shooting** incident took place between 30 August (Tuesday) and 1 September 2011 (Thursday) across the Line of Control in Kupwara District/Neelam Valley resulting in one Indian soldier and three Pakistani soldiers being killed. Both countries gave different accounts of the incident, each accusing the other of initiating the hostilities. [1][2]

The Incident

Pakistani sources claimed that the fighting started when Indian border security forces opened fire on a Pakistani checkpoint based on the Line of Control in the Neelam Valley of Azad Kashmir, Pakistan. ^[2] The Inter Services Public Relations spokesman Major General Athar Abbas confirmed the incident had taken place while talking to BBC Urdu. Abbas dubbed the attack as unprovoked and said the attack had been protested with India during a border meeting. ^[2] He claimed that three soldiers were moving from one post to another when they got lost during bad weather and after a 24-hour search, their bodies were recovered. ^[3]

Lieutenant-Colonel J.S. Brar, spokesman for the Indian Army, claimed that the incident started when Pakistan made an infiltration bid in the Keran Sector of Kupwara District, Jammu and Kashmir on Tuesday (30 August 2011) which was foiled by Indian security forces. He claimed that on Wednesday (31 August 2011) night, at around 20:00 hours, an Indian border post was fired on by Pakistani troops. Following the first shots, both sides engaged in a firefight, with the Indians claiming that heavy mortars and machine guns were used, and that the shooting lasted for about 50 minutes. Accusing Pakistan of two ceasefire violations in the space of fifteen hours, India claimed that the exchange of fire continued at 1100 hours the following day after a brief lull. [1][3][4]

Casualties

India confirmed the death of one soldier during the incident. He was identified as *Naib Subedar* Gurdayal Singh. Pakistan announced that three soldiers of the irregular Mujahid Battalion were also killed.

References

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In popular culture

Films (Indian)

Hindustan Ki Kasam

Hindustan Ki Kasam	
Directed by	Chetan Anand
Produced by	Ravi Anand
Starring	Raaj Kumar Amjad Khan Amrish Puri Parikshat Sahni
Music by	Madan Mohan
Country	India
Language	Hindi

Hindustan Ki Kasam (English: (The Oath of Hindustan) is a 1973 war movie based on the Indo-Pakistani War of 1971 directed by Chetan Anand.

Cast

- Chetan Anand
- Vijay Anand
- · Raaj Kumar
- · Priya Rajvansh
- · Balraj Sahni
- · Padma Khanna
- · Amjad Khan
- · Amrish Puri
- · Parikshat Sahni
- Bharat Kapoor
- · Nitin Sethi
- Satyendra Kapoor

Synopsis

The movie is different from other war movies in Indian cinema as it vividly describes the IAF's role in 1971 Indo-Pakistani war in the western sector.

The film starts with an air raid by Pakistan Air Force (PAF) on an Indian Air Force (IAF) airbase in the western sector in India. After the raid a pilot (Raj Kumar) takes an oath while standing near the body of a dead ground crewman - "Jawaab dene aaunga, is jawan ki kasam, Hindustan Ki Kasam" (we will avenge, we swear by this soldier, we swear by Hindustan). The credits start while the title song of the movie is played in the background (sung by the Mohammed Rafi and Manna Dey).

The movie revolves around the IAF's mission of destroying a PAF radar which blocks IAF pilots radios in combat. Indian intelligence plant Tahira (Priya Rajvansh), who is the fiancee of a PAF pilot (Amjad Khan). Tahira goes to

Hindustan Ki Kasam

Pakistan and starts working as a singer on Pakistan TV (PTV) studio (where the radar which jams the radio frequency of IAF jets is also kept). Tahira informs the IAF about the jammer. IAF asks her to leave the building in the night after her programme is done so that they can raid the building.

PAF's counter intelligence learns about her and they zero in on her on that very night. As soon her programme is finished the IAF air raids the studio while she is still inside. In the dogfight with Pak sabers Raj Kumar's jet is destroyed and he crashes. He radios for help and the IAF fighters destroy the pursuing Pakistani soldiers and their vehicles. The pilot and Tahira are evacuated. The movie ends with IAF's flypast on the Republic day parade in New Delhi, with the title song in the background.

References

External links

- Hindustan Ki Kasam (http://www.imdb.com/title/tt0154591/) at the Internet Movie Database
- click to see scenes form the movie (http://iaf00.tripod.com/hkk.html)

Aakraman 296

Aakraman

Aakraman	
Directed by	J. Om Prakash
Produced by	Jagdsih Kumar
Written by	Sachin Bhowmick
Starring	Ashok Kumar Sanjeev Kumar Rakesh Roshan
Music by	Laxmikant Pyarelal
Cinematography	V. Babasaheb
Editing by	Pratap Dave
Release date(s)	14 May 1975
Country	India
Language	Hindi

Aakraman is a 1975 Hindi war film. Produced by Jagdish Kumar and directed by J. Om Prakash. The war film stars Ashok Kumar, Sanjeev Kumar, Rekha, Rakesh Roshan, Farida Jalal, Sujit Kumar, Asrani, Keshto Mukherjee, Mumtaz Shanti and Rajesh Khanna. The music is by Laxmikant Pyarelal.

This film portrays the love angle between two army officers (Sanjeev Kumar and Rakesh Roshan) who fall in love with the same woman (Rekha) but when the indo-pak war breaks out, all hell breaks loose and the junior officer vows to take revenge with the other officer who has stolen his sweetheart by proposing her for marriage. But when they are posted on the frontline during the war he decides to get rid of his superior by planning to kill him once and for all but fails to do so as he realises his mistake. Sanjeev Kumar is killed by a Pakistani sentry in the end by deceit and the National flag falls on him. Besides this romantic drama the film also showcases the emotional remembrance of a father (Ashok Kumar) for his KIA son (not shown) who dies in the previous war i.e. 1965 indo pak-war and highlights the bravery and courage of Indian soldiers and airmen during the last days of the present 1971 war when India defeats Pakistan and with this east Pakistan is finished and Bangladesh is created.

Soundtrack

#	Title	Singer(s)
1	"Dekho Veer Jawanon"	Kishore Kumar
2	"Chhoti Umar Mein"	Kishore Kumar
3	"Fauji Gaya Jab Gaon Mein"	Kishore Kumar
4	"Fauji Gaya Jab Gaon Men"	Kishore Kumar
5	"Qawali Gaayenge"	Mahendra Kapoor, Asha Bhosle
6	"Woh Ek Haseen Ladki"	Kishore Kumar
7	"Yeh Mausam Aaya Hai"	Kishore Kumar, Lata Mangeshkar

Aakraman 297

External links

• Aakraman [1] at the Internet Movie Database

Vijeta

Vijeta		
Directed by	Govind Nihlani	
Produced by	Shashi Kapoor	
Written by	Dilip Chitre	
	Satyadev Dubey	
Starring	Shashi Kapoor	
	Rekha	
	Amrish Puri	
	Kunal Kapoor	
	Supriya Pathak	
	Om Puri	
Music by	Ajit Varman	
Distributed by	Film-valas International	
Release date(s)	1982	
Running time	4909.86m (18 reels)	
Country	India	
Language	Hindi	

Vijeta is a 1982 Hindi film produced by Shashi Kapoor and directed by Govind Nihalani. It stars Shashi Kapoor, Rekha, Kunal Kapoor, Amrish Puri and Supriya Pathak. The movie also stars K.K. Raina, Raja Bundela and Shafi Inamdar who went to be notable support actors in Bollywood movies.

Plot

Vijeta (The Victor) is the coming of age story of Angad (Kunal Kapoor). Confused like any other teenager trying to find himself and caught in between the marital problems of his mother Neelima (Rekha) and father Nihal (Shashi Kapoor). It is time for him to decide what he wants to do with his life. To select a profession and be someone, Angad chooses to become a fighter pilot with the Indian Air Force. What follows is his struggle to become a victor both with his self and the outer world. One side plot, Angad is attracted to Anna Verghese (Supriya Pathak), who is the daughter of his flying instructor (Amrish Puri). Angad must learn to adapt to flying, leaving his mom and dad for long periods of time, as well as try and woo Anna who helps him overcome his fears and realize his potential as a fighter pilot. Plot of movie delicately tackles the issue of religious harmony. Main plot of the movie contains such complex undertones; Nihal and Neelima are Hindu, Angad a Sikh and Anna a Christian, and Angad's fellow officers represent all religion.

The film is notable for some rarely seen aerial photography of combat aircraft active with the IAF in 1980s. The central character of Angad himself is a MiG-21 pilot and is shown flying the aircraft in ground attack role in the 1971 India-Pakistan War. Much of the movie, including the climax involving a MiG-21bis, was shot at Pune. The IAF No.4 Squadron (the 'Oorials') provided the pilots and planes for the film's aerial sequences. The movie included good color footage of the Oorials aircraft in flight and in operations.

Vijeta 298

Cast

- · Shashi Kapoor as Nihal Singh
- · Rekha as Neelima Singh
- Supriya Pathak as Anna Verghese
- · Kunal Kapoor as Angad
- Amrish Puri as Group Captain Verghese, the Chief Instructor
- · Om Puri as Arvind
- Dina Pathak as Angad's grandmother (Biji)
- · Shafi Inamdar as Wing Commander Parulkar

Facts

- The "senior pilots of the Indian Air Force" who are credited with providing assistance with the aerial photography were drawn from No. 4 Squadron, IAF ("The Fighting Oorials"). It was their MIG-21Bis' that were used in the aerial combat sequences and much of the film was shot at their then base in Poona/Pune^[1].
- The I.N.S. Mysore seen in the film was a WW2 British Fiji Class Cruiser, H.M.S. Nigeria that was sold to the Indian Navy in 1957. The ship was decommissioned soon after the film was completed. The current (2006) I.N.S. Mysore is a newer vessel^[1].
- The aircraft that the pilots train on are domestically produced HAL HJT-16 Kirans^[1].

Filming locations

- Air Force Academy, Dundigal, Hyderabad, Andhra Pradesh, India
- Air Force Station, Pune, Maharashtra, India
- · National Defence Academy, Khadakswala, Pune, Maharashtra, India
- R.K. Studios, Chembur, Mumbai, Maharashtra, India

Reception

Film World magazine rated the film "Good" and wrote, "Vijeta is perhaps the first film of its kind, a film which shows the Indian Air Force, its gallant men and their life in true colours." [2] According to Asiaweek, "Vijeta is a tribute to the IAF in celebration of its golden jubilee last year". [3]

Awards

- Filmfare Best Cinematographer Award Govind Nihalani
- Filmfare Best Editing Award Keshav Naidu
- Filmfare Best Sound Award Hitendra Ghosh

References

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- [2] Film World (T.M. Ramachandran) 20. 1983.
- [3] C.B. Rao (1983). "Tribute to a Proud Force". Asiaweek (Asiaweek Ltd) 9.

Vijeta 299

External links

• Vijeta (http://www.imdb.com/title/tt0153545/) at the Internet Movie Database

Param Vir Chakra (film)

Param Vir Chakra	
Directed by	Ashok Kaul
Produced by	Ashok Kaul
Written by	Anees Bazmee
Starring	Saeed Jaffrey
	Kulbhushan
	Kharbanda
	Hema Malini
Music by	Ravindra Jain
Cinematography	Radhu Karmakar
Editing by	Navneet Pataskar
Release date(s)	31 March 1995
Country	India
Language	Hindi

Param Vir Chakra is a 1995 Bollywood war action film directed and written by Ashok Kaul. It stars Saeed Jaffrey, Kulbhushan Kharbanda and Hema Malini. The film premiered on March 31 1995 in Mumbai.

Cast

- · Saeed Jaffrey, as Naval Officer
- Kulbhushan Kharbanda as Army officer
- Hema Malini as Mother Army officer
- Rajesh as Army officer
- Rajeshwari as College student

Soundtracks

#	Title	Singer(s)
1	"Gagan Se Oonchi - Part I"	Suresh Wadkar, Mohammed Aziz, Vinod Rathod,
2	"Pyar Ki Vaadiyon Mein - Part I"	Alka Yagnik, Udit Narayan
3	"Pyar Ki Vaadiyon Mein - Part II"	Alka Yagnik, Udit Narayan
4	"Gagan Se Oonchi - Part II"	Suresh Wadkar, Mohammed Aziz, Vinod Rathod,
5	"Sun Aaj Mere"	Kumar Sanu, Sadhna Sargam
6	"Ek Baat Kahoon"	Kumar Sanu
7	"Tujh Pe Qurban"	Ravindra Jain, Asha Bhosle
8	"My First Love"	Kumar Sanu, Suresh Wadkar, Mohammed Aziz
9	"Pyar Ke Lamhe"	Suresh Wadkar, Mohammed Aziz

Param Vir Chakra (film) 300

10	"Param Veer Chakra"	Ravindra Jain
11	"Mere Mehboob Mere Watan"	Kumar Sanu, Suresh Wadkar, Mohammed Aziz, Asha Bhosle

External links

- Param Vir Chakra (film) [1] at the Internet Movie Database
- Param Vir Chakra at Dhingana.com ^[2]

Border (1997 film)

Border		
DVD Cover		
Directed by	J.P. Dutta	
Produced by	J.P. Dutta	
Screenplay by	J.P. Dutta	
Starring	Sunny Deol Suniel Shetty Akshaye Khanna Raakhee Jackie Shroff Tabbu Pooja Bhatt Kulbhushan Kharbanda Puneet Issar	
Music by	Anu Malik	
Cinematography	Ishwar R. Bidri Nirmal Jani	
Editing by	Deepak Wirkud	
Distributed by	J.P. Films	
Release date(s)	June 13, 1997	
Running time	211 mins	
Country	India	
Language	Hindi	
Box office	₹61 crore (US\$12.17 million) Original ₹149.11 crore (US\$29.75 million) Adjusted ^[1]	

Border (Hindi: बॉर्डर) is a 1997 blockbuster Bollywood Anti-war film based on the Indo-Pakistani War of 1971. J. P. Dutta directed and produced this war epic which stars Sunny Deol, Sunil Shetty, Akshaye Khanna, Jackie Shroff, Tabu, Pooja Bhatt, Puneet Issar, Kulbhushan Kharbanda, Raakhee and Sharbani Mukherjee.

The movie is an adaptation from real life events that happened at the Battle of Longewala fought in Rajasthan (Western Theatre) during the Indo-Pakistani War of 1971 and Bangladesh Liberation War. It is about how a band of 120 soldiers of the Punjab regiment of the Indian Army headed by Major Kuldip Singh Chandpuri successfully defended their post all night against a whole Tank regiment of the Pakistani Army, until assistance came from the Indian Air Force the next morning. The film was a critical and commercial hit in India.

Plot

The film opens before the actual declaration of the Indo-Pakistani War of 1971 as army Major Kuldip Singh Chandpuri and airforce Wing Commander Anand 'Andy' Bajwa meet on a courier flight and speak about the possibility of opening of the Western front in light of the East Pakistan conflict. Kuldip takes up command of a Coy of the 23rd Punjab Regiment, arguing the light defense being assigned to the military post of Longewala. He meets his second in command Lt Dharamvir Bhan (who happens to be the son of a 1965 Indo-Pakistani-War veteran who

was killed during that war) and the Coy NCO Subedar Mathura Das. The company moves to the remote outpost in the deserts of Rajasthan and begins to expand the rudimentary BSF post and does a recce of the area up to the international border with Pakistan. They meet the post's BSF commandant Bhairon Singh, a deeply patriotic man who expresses his love for the desert.

During a night patrol, Kuldip, Lt Dharamvir and Bhairon Singh come across a suspicious bunch of locals who turn out to be insurgents having informed the identities of the company to the Pakistani military. The trio get into a brief firefight killing all but one of the insurgents when Dharamvir hesitates to shoot one of the insurgents, as he had never killed anyone. Kuldip severely derides him and shoots the insurgent himself, prompting Dharamvir to vomit. A badly shaken Dharamvir is comforted by Bhairon Singh and the two reminisce about their personal lives. Dharamvir recounts how he met his fiancee Kamla, a lively young girl from his native village who he had fallen for and how he got his mobilization orders on the day of his engagement to Kamla. Bhairon Singh recounts his wedding night, his first night with his bride, when he was called back to post and how he bids a tearful goodbye to his beautiful wife Phool Kanwar.

The unit is joined by the charismatic Subedar Ratan Singh, a man of insatiable appetite and wit, with 2 106mm jeep-mounted RCL guns to serve as an anti-armour unit. The company wireless operator picks up a spy transmitting from a nearby area and Dharamvir sets out to investigate. He ambushes the spy and kills the man, bringing the body back to the post to prove that he has overcome his fear of killing another person. The unit settles down to wait for the enemy as they keep track of the developing events on the radio. The Indian army starts moving forces to nearby locations preparing to attack if Pakistan tries to open the Western front and this gives hope of soon-to-come action for the men tired of the long wait in the hot and desolate desert. Subedar Mathura Das is granted leave to attend to his wife (who is ailing with cancer) and children. The men receive letters with news from back home and talk among of themselves of the people they left back home to serve their country.

On the evening of 3 December 1971, the unit receives word that the enemy has attacked with Pakistan Air Force planes bombing multiple Indian airbases and that war has been officially declared by the Indian Prime Minister Indira Gandhi. Dharamvir and five of his soldiers are sent to patrol the border within a section while Bhairon Singh and his men are assigned to clear out the nearby villages. As Bhairon Singh is briefing the villagers on evacuation, Pakistani artillery batteries start shelling Indian positions and villages. Kuldip joins in the evacuation as heavy shelling occurs leveling a whole village. In the meanwhile Dharamvir and his patrol spot Pakistani tanks and infantry crossing the border into India. He reports back the enemy movement to Kuldip and is ordered to secretly follow the tanks without engaging them. Kuldip radios for air support and speaks to Wing Com Bajwa, who tells him that there can be no air support as his base has only Hunter-Fighters, which cannot fly at night. In despair, Kuldip radios his CO and explains his untenable position. He is given the option of either holding his post or retreat, he decides to stay and so does his entire company.

As the unit digs in to face the enemy assault, Mathura returns and apologizes for deserting the men of his company. Kuldip thanks him for returning in time and assigns him to the RCL units, promising Mathura that he will return to his family when the war is over. The post is surrounded by massed enemy armour and infantry while the shelling from across the border continues relentlessly. Fortunately, Kuldip manages to get the company to bury anti-tank mines around the post to prevent the tanks from barging in. Upon seeing one of his tanks being blown by one of the mines, the Pakistani commander Ghulam Dastagir hurls expletives at Kuldip addressing him by name and tells him to retreat or die. Kuldip lashes back and swears and insults Dastagir, addressing him by name and insulting him. The tanks open fire on the post and the battle begins with Kuldip ordering Mathura to destroy some more tanks. Though the tide of the battle is turning good for the Indians at first, it wasn't until Mathura's RCL is hit by a tank shell, wounding him and prompting Bhairon Singh to extract him from the burning jeep. Mathura is fatally wounded when he goes to extract a recoil spring for Bhairon Singh's MMG and dies in Bhairon's arms. Subedar sacrifices himself to throw away an exploding tank shell to prevent several of his men from being killed. Another tank targets Bhairon's machine gun nest and destroys it, wounding Bhairon. He charges the same tank and destroys it with an anti-tank

mine, killing himself and the Pakistani soldiers inside the tank. Dharamvir breaks through the enemy cordon and returns to post, but his entire patrol is wiped out in the process. The Pakistani commander orders a bayonet charge on the Indian position but the attack is beaten back by the Indians with Dharamvir being severely wounded. The Indians capture a Pakistani private who reveals that the Pakistani column plans to capture Jaiselmer by morning, Jodhpur by afternoon, and reach Delhi by night.

As dawn nears, the Pakistanis launch a last-ditch attempt to overrun Longewala post with their massed assault of tanks and infantry, ignoring the danger of the anti-tank mines that are still buried. Kuldip gathers the remaining of his depleted force and prepares for a suicide counter-attack on the advancing enemy. The Indians engage in vicious hand-to-hand fighting with Kuldip jumping from tank to tank lobbing grenades down the turret hatches. Dawn has broken as the fight heats up and Bajwa's squadron finally takes off from the Jaisalmer Base to aid Kudip's besieged coy. During the fight, Kuldip falls on the ground into the sights of a Pakistani tank but before the tank can open fire to kill him, it is destroyed by cannon fire from an Indian Air Force jet as Bajwa's squadron arrives and the tide of the battle turns. The Pakistani attack breaks as tank after tank is hit by the planes till they decide to beat a retreat back across the border. The battle ends as a soldier tries to tell Dharamvir about the victory and realises that he has died. The unit is relieved as Indian tanks and artillery arrive and more air-strikes beat back enemy reinforcements. The end credits roll as the Indians launch their counter-offensive and news of the deceased reach their homes, much to their families' discomfort.

Cast

- Sunny Deol as Major Kuldip Singh Chandpuri
- Jackie Shroff as Wing Commander Andy Bajwa
- · Suniel Shetty as Captain Bhairon Singh, B.S.F.
- · Akshaye Khanna as 2nd Lt. Dharamvir
- Puneet Issar as Subedar Ratan Singh
- Sudesh Berry as Subedar Mathura Das
- · Kulbhushan Kharbanda as Phagheeram, the cook
- · Tabu as Kuldip Singh's wife
- Pooja Bhatt as Kamla (Dharamvir's fiancee)
- · Rakhi as Dharamvir's mother
- · Sharbani Mukherjee as Bhairon Singh's wife

Awards

National Film Awards

- Nargis Dutt Award for Best Feature Film on National Integration 1998
- Won: National Film Award for Best Lyrics, India Javed Akhtar
- Won: National Film Award for Best Male Playback Singer, India Hariharan For the song "Mere Dushman"

Filmfare Awards

• Filmfare Award for Best Director: J.P. Dutta

Soundtrack

The music is composed by Anu Malik while the lyrics are penned by Javed Akhtar. The songs of the film are not only popular in India but also in Pakistan. [2]

Track listing

No.	Title	Singer(s)	Length
1.	"Humein Jab Se Mohabbat"	Sonu Nigam, Alka Yagnik	07:33
2.	"Hindustan Hindustan"	Shankar Mahadevan, Sonali Rathod	08:12
3.	"Ke Ghar Ab Aaoge (Sandese Aate Hain)"	Roop Kumar Rathod, Sonu Nigam	10:19
4.	"Mere Dushman Mere Bhai"	Hariharan	10:15
5.	"To Chaloon"	Roop Kumar Rathod	08:21

Anti-war message

The film intended to make an appeal against war, and thus the end of the movie of depicted most soldiers dead, and the trauma it caused to their family members.

The lyrics of song *Mere Dushman Mere Bhai* sung by Hariharan also criticizes war and describes its disastrous effects, with the lines "Hum Apne Apne Kheton Mein Gehoon Ki Jagah Chaanval Ki Jagah, Ye Bandookein Kyoon Botein Hain.... Jab Dono Hi Ki Galiyon Mein, Kuch Bhooke Bachche Rotein Hain....!" meaning, "Why do we sow guns in our farms instead of wheat and rice, when in streets of both (of our countries), some hungry children cry...."

Contradictary views

In 2001, Former Air Marshal M. S. Bawa, the then Base Commander of Jaisalmer, whose role Jackie Shroff played in the movie, said, "Border was a complete distortion of history. The Army did not even fire one bullet. The thrust of the Pakistani armour was blunted entirely by air attack." [4]

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- [3] "Lyrics of Mere Dushman mere bhai" (http://www.lyricsmasti.com/song/1034/get_lyrics_of_Mere-Dushman-Mere-Bhai.html).
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External links

- Border (http://www.imdb.com/title/tt0118751/) at the Internet Movie Database
- Border (http://www.allrovi.com/movies/movie/v266775) at AllRovi
- LOC Kargil (http://www.imdb.com/title/tt0347416/) at the Internet Movie Database
- Interview with J.P. Dutta (http://www.indianexpress.com/res/web/ple/ie/daily/19970509/12950753.html)

LOC Kargil

LOC Kargil	
Theatrical release poster	
Directed by	J.P.Dutta
Produced by	J.P. Dutta
Screenplay by	J.P. Dutta
Story by	J.P. Dutta
Starring	Nagarjuna Akkineni Puru Rajkumar Sanjay Dutt Ajay Devgan Saif Ali Khan Sunil Shetty Sanjay Kapoor Abhishek Bachchan Akshaye Khanna Manoj Bajpai Rani Mukerji Kareena Kapoor Esha Deol Raveena Tandon
Music by	Anu Malik
Cinematography	Karim Khatri
Distributed by	J P Films
Release date(s)	December 26, 2003
Running time	255 mins
Country	India
Language	Hindi

LOC Kargil is a 2003 Bollywood war film based on the Kargil War, directed and written by J. P. Dutta. The film stars a large number of Bollywood stars.

Plot

The film is an attempt to dramatize a synopsis of the 1999 Kargil War (Operation Vijay).

The film opens with a dramatic shot of an Indian soldier's wireless set chirping frantic commands from one of the army bases, calling a patrol to report in, while the radio operator lies dead in the snow. After frantic attempts, from various battalions, to locate their lost patrols, the Indian Army HQ in Jammu and Kashmir decides to deploy more troops, but suffers a rude shock when company, and even battalion-sized attacks are beaten back by the largely unknown enemy sitting on top of the steep and treacherous peaks surrounding Kargil, Mushkoh Valley, Drass, Batalik and the Kaksar sectors. After these terrible and surprising reverses the decision is taken to go ahead with maximum mobilization and move its best fighting units into the area of operations.

The first unit deployed is 1/11 Gurkhas (1st Bn 11th Regiment) who are specialists in high altitude warfare. 1/11 is led by its CO, Col. Lalit Rai (Sudesh Berry), and has the charismatic and brave Lt. Manoj Pandey (Ajay Devgan)

leading one of its platoons. Subsequently, the 18th Grenadiers, which was in the Kashmir Valley guarding against terrorist infiltration when they were urgently summoned to help throw out the intruders, are deployed. The Granadiers were led by Colonel Khushal Thakur (Raj Babbar), and among the officers and soldiers were men like Lt. Col R Vishwanathan (Mohnish Behl), Major Rajesh Adhikari (Karan Nath), Lt. Balwan Singh (Akshaye Khanna), Captain Sachin Nimbalkar (Vineet Sharma), and Grenadiers Yogendra Singh Yadav (Ashutosh Rana & Manoj Bajpai). Other units like the 17th Jat, 2nd Rajputana Rifles, 22 & 16 Grenadiers, 2 Naga, 1 Bihar, 8 Sikh, 18 Garhwal Rifles, 12 JAK LI, 3 Punjab and 13th J&K Rifles are also inducted into the theater of conflict.

The first assault is by the 1/11 Gurkhas advance platoon led by Lt. Manoj Pandey which links with the beleaguered and severely mauled Sikh Bn and then follows up to launch its attack on Kukarthang post which is a very heavily defended enemy position supported by mortar units and artillery batteries on the Pakistani side of LOC. The Gurkhas take Kukarthang after suffering heavy casualties revealing that the enemy is not a rag-tag bunch of Mujahiddin but rather a trained army unit which is being given full fire support from across the LOC.

The second battle is at the strategic Tololing mountain which sits astride the vital National Highway 1, the main supply route for the entire Northern Kashmir sector including Siachen and Leh. Col. Khushal's 18th Grenadiers 1st company, led by Major Adhikari, attacks Tololing. The company is held up midway to the top due to heavy fog, so it decides to wait for clear weather. The men when half asleep suffer intense shelling from artillery and mortars, causing several casualties and panic. They try to get to safety by moving up the mountain, but are pushed down by heavy small arms fire from intruders dug into the well-prepared position atop the mountain. Subsequent counter-attacks from the Indians are stifled by stiff resistance, in the absence of artillery support for the Indians, claiming the lives of Major Adhikari and Lt. Col. Vishwanathan.

The 18th Grenadiers are relieved by 2nd Rajputana Rifles, commanded by Col. Ravindranath (Ashish Vidyarthi), which moves in with an artillery battery of 110 mm field artillery and acclimatised troops. They launch a multi-pronged attack under artillery cover which ends in success, but at the cost of losing many officers and ranks, including Capt. Vijayant Thapar (Amar Upadhyay), Maj. Padmapani Acharya (Nagarjuna Akkineni) and Maj. Vivek Gupta (Himanshu Malik). All this happens while the 13th J&K Rifles led by Lt. Col. Y K Joshi (Sanjay Dutt) stands by in case the 2nd Raj Rif fails.

The 13th JAK Rif is blooded at Rocky Mount where they take the field after suffering heavy casualties and then follows it up with another victory at Point 5140 where Captain Vikram Batra (Abhishek Bachchan) distinguishes himself by taking the south face of Pt 5140 without any casualties and is promoted to captain.

The decisive phase of the of war has come. 18th Grenadiers are assigned to take Tiger Hill, 17th Jat to Three Pimple complex feature, 1/11 Gurkha to Khalubar Ridge and 13th J&K to Bunker Complex. The Grenadiers take Tiger Hill after a daring stealth attack by the elite Ghatak section, losing its lead Nk Yogender Yadav (Ashutosh Rana), and only one of them Grenadier Yogender Yadav (Manoj Bajpai) survives to link up with the rest of the battalion. 17th Jat suffers heavy casualties with Captain Anuj Nayyar (Saif Ali Khan) and several others injured, but is able to secure Three Pimple complex.

1/11 Gurkha links up with 22 Grenadiers at the base of Khalubar Ridge after braving an intense creeping barrage of artillery. Pandey somehow keeps the sagging morale of the weary unit up till the battalion begins its attack. The plans go awry as Gurkha CO Col Rai is injured by machine gun fire. Pandey volunteers to take out the bunkers which are holding up the attack. The machine guns are taken out, but Pandey is killed in action.

The last battle is fought by the 13th J&K attacking Bunker Complex but the unit gets split up and Capt Batra is sent to link up with Captain Nagappa (Nagender Choudhary) who has been captured one bunkar and surrounded by enemy, Batra links up with capt. Nagappa but is pinned down himself by heavy enemy fire, he single handedly takes out two bunkers but is mortally wounded. The 13th JAK pursues the enemy to the LOC but stops due to orders not to cross the LOC. Finally India declares 'OPEARTION VIJAY' a success and victory and secures all its captured heights from the deceitful and cunning Pakistani adversary.

Cast

Actor	Role
Nagarjuna Akkineni	Maj. Padmapani Acharya, 2 Rajputana Rifles
Sanjay Dutt	Lt Col. Y.K. Joe, 13 JAK Rifles
Ajay Devgan	Lt. Manoj Kumar Pandey, 1/11 Gurkha Rifles
Saif Ali Khan	Capt. Anuj Nayyar, 17 JAT
Suniel Shetty	Rfn Sanjay Kumar, 13 JAK Rifles
Sanjay Kapoor	Maj. Deepak Rampal, 17 JAT
Abhishek Bachchan	Capt. Vikram Batra, 13 JAK Rifles
Akshaye Khanna	Lt. Balwan Singh, 18 Grenadiers
Manoj Bajpai	Gren. Yogender Singh Yadav, 18 Grenadiers
Amar Upadhyay	Capt. Vijayanth Thapar, 2 Rajputana Rifles
Ashutosh Rana	Yogender Singh, 18 Grenadiers
Karan Nath	Maj. Rajesh Adhikari, 18 Grenadiers
Raj Babbar	Col. Khushal Thakur, 18 Grenadiers
Mohnish Bahl	Lt Col. R. Viswanathan, 18 Grenadiers
Sudesh Berry	Col. Lalit Rai, 1/11 Gurkha Rifles
Avtar Gill	Sub. Digendra Kumar, 2 Rajputana Rifles
Milind Gunaji	Maj. Rajesh Adhau, 13 JAK Rifles
Kiran Kumar	Col. Umesh Singh Bawa, 17 JAT
Bikram Saluja	Capt. Sanjeev Jamwal, 13 JAK Rifles
Ashish Vidyarthi	Col. MB Ravindranath, 2 Rajputana Rifles
Mukesh Tiwari	Lt. Col. Asthana, 1/11 Gurkha Rifles
Vineet Sharma	Captain Sachin Nimbalkar, commanding the Ghatak (deadly) column, was the first to reach the northeast side of the Tiger top.
Nagender Choudhary	Captain Nagappa ,13 JAK Rifles
Arman Kohli	
Singh Surendra	

Actress	Role
Rani Mukerji	Hema (Manoj Pandey's love interest)
Raveena Tandon	Deepak's wife
Kareena Kapoor	Simran (Anuj Nayyar's love interest)
Preeti Jhangiani	Balwaan's love interest
Mahima Chaudhry	Reena Yadav
Esha Deol	Dimple (Vikram Batra's love interest)
Isha Koppikar	Rifleman Sanjay's fiancee
Divya Dutta	Yogendra Yadav's wife
Priya Gill	Charulatha (Acharya Padmapani's wife)

Namrata Shirodkar	YK Joshi's wife
Akanksha Malhotra	Kiran Adhikari (Rajesh Singh Adhikari's wife)
Maya Alagh	Manoj Pandey's mother

Soundtrack

#	Title	Singer(s)
1	"Pyar Bhare Geet"	Sonu Nigam, Shreya Ghoshal
2	"Main Kahin Bhi Rahoon"	Udit Narayan, Sonu Nigam, Roop Kumar Rathod, Hariharan, Sukhwinder Singh
3	"Ek Saathi Aur Bhi Tha"	Sonu Nigam
4	"Seemaaye Bulaaye"	Alka Yagnik
5	"Khush Rehna"	Roop Kumar Rathod
6	"Before We Forget (Instrumental)"	

External links

+ $LOC Kargil^{[1]}$ at the Internet Movie Database

Deewaar (2004 film) 309

Deewaar (2004 film)

Deewaar		
Directed by	Milan Luthria	
Produced by	Gaurang Doshi	
Screenplay by	Shridhar Raghavan Milan Luthria	
Starring	Amitabh Bachchan Sanjay Dutt Akshaye Khanna Amrita Rao	
Music by	Aadesh Shrivastav	
Cinematography	Nirmal Jani	
Editing by	Hozefa Lokhandwala	
Distributed by	V. R. Pictures	
Release date(s)	June 25, 2004	
Country	India	
Language	Hindi	

Deewaar - Wall of War (Hindi: दीवार) is an Indian action film directed by Milan Luthria, while produced by Gaurang Doshi and written by Anurag Kashyap. The film starred Amitabh Bachchan, Akshaye Khanna, Sanjay Dutt and Amrita Rao in lead roles. Raghuvir Yadav, Kay Kay Menon and Tanuja had supporting roles. The film has nothing to do with the 1975 film Deewaar, which also starred Bachchan.

Plot

Major Ranvir Kaul (Amitabh Bachchan) is a POW who was captured along with over 30 soldiers by Pakistani soldiers in 1971 during the war between India and Pakistan. 33 years later Ranvir's son Gaurav (Akshaye Khanna) decides to go on a rescue mission to Pakistan and bring back his father who he has not seen since he was a child. Helping him on his mission is Khan (Sanjay Dutt) who had successfully escaped from the same prison. They steal, kill, and plan to get the prisoners out.

Cast

- · Amitabh Bachchan Maj. Ranvir Kaul
- Sanjay Dutt Khan
- · Akshaye Khanna Gaurav Kaul
- Amrita Rao Radhika
- · Raghuvir Yadav Jata
- Kay Kay Menon Sohail
- · Aditya Shrivastava ...
- · Rajendranath Zutshi
- · Akhilendra Mishra
- Tanuja Ranvir Kaul's wife
- Pradeep Rawat Baldev

Deewaar (2004 film) 310

- · Arif Zakaria ... Rajan
- D. Santosh ... P.O.W. Raghu Jen

Music

Music for the film was composed by Aadesh Shrivastav. The lyrics were written by Nusrat Badr.

- "Ali Ali", sung by Krishna Beura, Shraddha Pandit and Vijayta (5:57)
- "Chaliye Va Chaliye", sung by Roop Kumar Rathod and Udit Narayan (5:56)
- "Kara Kaga", sung by Alka Yagnik (4:19)
- "Marhaba Marhaba", sung by Sonu Nigam and Xenia Ali (5:18)
- "Piya Bawri", sung by Alka Yagnik and Kailash Kher (4:52)
- "Todenge Deewaar Hum", sung by Mukul Agrawal and Udit Narayan (4:43)

Two remix versions of the songs were also recorded:

- "Marhaba Marhaba" (remix), sung by Sonu Nigam and Xenia Ali (5:18)
- "Piya Bawri" (instrumental) (4:52)

External links

- IndiaFM.com [1], review and miscellaneous info
- IMDb ^[2], Deewaar at the Internet Movie Database

Lakshya (film)

Lakshya		
Theatrical release poster		
Directed by	Farhan Akhtar	
Produced by	Ritesh Sidhwani	
Screenplay by	Javed Akhtar	
Story by	Javed Akhtar	
Starring	Hrithik Roshan	
	Preity Zinta	
Music by	Shankar-Ehsaan-Loy	
Cinematography	Christopher Popp	
Editing by	Anand Subaya	
Distributed by	Excel Entertainment	
Release date(s)	June 18, 2004	
Running time	187 mins	
Country	India	
Language	Hindi	
Budget	₹ 32 crore (US\$6.38 million) ^[1]	
Box office	₹ 33.25 crore (US\$6.63 million) ^[2]	

Lakshya (Hindi: लक्ष्य; English: Target) is a 2004 Bollywood film directed by Farhan Akhtar, with stars Hrithik Roshan, Preity Zinta, Amitabh Bachchan, Om Puri and Boman Irani. Roshan who plays the role of Lieutenant (later Acting Captain) Karan Shergill, who leads his team (initially 12, falling to 6 members) to victory over the Pakistani troops. It is actually a coming of age story of Roshan with fictionalized backdrop of 1999 Kargil Conflict. It commercially received a below average status, but garnered positive reviews and has achieved the status of a cult movie.

Plot

Karan Shergill(Hrithik Roshan) is a young man who has no goal or plans for his future. His father is a businessman, his brother is a successful individual living in America. His girlfriend, Romi(Preity Zinta), a student activist and reporter who espouses fashionable causes out of well-meaning sincerity, tells him he needs to find a goal in life. When a friend announces he is going to join the Indian Military Academy, Karan applies as well, despite dissent from his parents.

To his surprise, Karan gets selected(though his friend doesn't). But he is undisciplined and unused to the life there and keeps getting into trouble. Upset, he runs away from the academy, which causes Romi to break up with him. Karan finally comes to terms with his situation and makes his decision. He returns to the IMA, takes his punishment, and becomes a focused, disciplined cadet leader, graduating as an officer Lieutenant Karan Shergill.

Karan is posted to the 3rd Battalion of the Punjab Regiment, commanded by Col.Sunil Damle(Amitabh Bachchan) in the Kargil sector, and handles his responsibilities well. Karan comes home on leave and finds out that Romi is getting engaged and goes to the ceremony to congratulate her. Karan is recalled to his post as his leave is cut short due to outbreak of hostilities in Kargil.

He reports back to his post where he is promoted to the rank of Acting Captain. His battalion CO briefs the officers on the latest situation. The battalion has been assigned to secure Point 5179, a crucial vantage point dominating the army's main supply line, the NH1D. The first part of the assault is successful and battalion destroys the enemy's screening units with Karan cited for his bravery in saving another officer's life. Meanwhile, Romi gets stationed as war correspondent, where she meets a metamorphosized Karan.

Karan learns that Romi broke off her engagement. She tries to renew her relationship with him amidst the war, but this time, Karan declines her. In the second phase of the assault Karan's unit engages in a failed attempt to storm and capture the Pakistani strongholds on the mountain. The Pakistanis have the advantage due to their strategic position and deal the unit heavy losses during the attack. Capt. Shergill and a group of 12 are next given orders to encircle the enemy position and attack it from behind. To do this, they must scale a 1000-foot wall of rock. Karan realizes that he has finally found his **Lakshya**(goal) in form of the wall.

After the unit sustains an attack in a grass field and loses their commanding officer, the remaining men scale the cliff and attack the Pakistani stronghold during the night. The movie ends with Col.Damle looking out across the mountains the next morning, to see an injured Capt.Karan hoisting the Indian flag atop the ruins of the stronghold. Karan's father, who was sceptical and disapproving of him, is now proud of his son. Karan is given a leave following his condition, whereupon he and Romi reunite.

Cast

- · Hrithik Roshan as Capt. Karan Shergill
- · Preity Zinta as Romila Dutta
- Amitabh Bachchan as Colonel Suneil Damle
- Om Puri as Subedar Maj. Pritam Singh
- Sharad Kapoor as Maj. Binod Sengupta
- Raj Zutshi as Maj. Kaushal Verma
- Sushant Singh as Captain Jalal Akbar
- Parmeet Sethi as Pakistani Maj. Shahbaaz Humdani
- Boman Irani as Karan's father
- Lilette Dubey as Mrs. Dutta, Romila's mother
- Sanjay Singh as Capt. Manjit Singh Dhingra
- · Aditya Srivastav as Lt. Colonel Pradeep
- Amit Behl as Company Commander (I.M.A.)
- · Ranvir Shorey as Tarsem Singh
- · Kushal Punjabi as Raj Tilak Singh
- · Prashant Chainani as Capt. Vishal Srivastav
- · Shakeel Khan
- · Nawab Shah as Maj. Satish Babbar
- Abir Goswami as Capt. (Dr.) Sudhir Mishra
- Abhimanyu Shekhar Singh as Adjutant Major Pratap Singh
- · Ashok Kumar as Babulal
- Surendra Pal as a Commandant (I.M.A.)
- · Parvin Dabbas
- K K Raina
- Amrish Puri as Brig. Gen. Gautam Puri (Special Appearance)

Boxoffice

India

The film made an impressive opening^[3] and finally grossed ₹ 33.25 crore (US\$6.63 million) at Indian box-office.

Overseas

Lakshya grossed \$5,859,242 worldwide including \$753,600 from North American markets and \$5,105,642 from other markets. ^[4] In the U.S., the film had performed better, grossing \$ 380,000 on 59 screens [approx. Rs. 1.75 crores] in its opening weekend. The per screen average is \$ 6,440. ^[5]

Soundtrack

The film's soundtrack has been composed by Shankar-Ehsaan-Loy, with lyrics by Javed Akhtar. [6]

Song	Singer(s)	Duration	Picturized On
Main Aisa Kyun Hoon	Shaan	4.34	Hrithik Roshan
Agar Main Kahoon	Udit Narayan, Alka Yagnik	4.52	Hrithik Roshan, Preity Zinta
Kitni Baatein	Hariharan, Sadhana Sargam	5.47	Hrithik Roshan, Preity Zinta
Lakshya	Shankar Mahadevan	6.15	Hrithik Roshan
Kandhon Se Milte Hain Kandhe	Kunal Ganjawala, Sonu Nigam, Roop Kumar Rathod, Vijay Prakash, Hariharan, Shankar Mahadevan	5.40	Hrithik Roshan
Separation	Instrumental	2.29	Hrithik Roshan, Preity Zinta
Kitni Baatein (Reprise)	Hariharan, Sadhana Sargam	4.11	
Victory	Instrumental	3.20	Hrithik Roshan

Professional ratings		
Review scores		
Source	Rating	
Bollywood Hungama	*****	
Planet Bollywood	******	

The reception to the soundtrack ranged from mixed to positive. Joginder Tutja of *Bollywood Hungama* in his review, said "*Lakshya does have good music that is very urban and will appeal to the class audience.Going by the theme of the movie, the album is pretty balanced and has been composed with style that speaks of class.*" [7] Planet Bollywood found the album to be *as good as Dil Chahta Hai*. [8] Subhash K. Jha described the album as *daringly unusual sound with a show-offy kind of innovativeness*. [9]

Sukanya Verma of Rediff, however, remarked that, though the album was good, it was below expectations and lacked punch. [10]

2004 Filmfare Awards

Wins

- Best Cinematographer Christopher Popp
- Best Choreography Prabhu Deva Sundaram

Nominations

- Best Actor Hrithik Roshan
- Best Director Farhan Akhtar
- Best Story Javed Akhtar

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- Lakshya (http://www.boxofficemojo.com/movies/?id=lakshya.htm) at Box Office Mojo

1971 (film)

1971		
Directed by	Amrit Sagar	
Produced by	Amrit Sagar	
	Moti Sagar	
Written by	Piyush Mishra (Screenplay &	
	Dialogue)	
	Amrit Sagar	
Starring	Manoj Bajpai	
	Ravi Kishan	
	Chitaranjan Giri	
	Kumud Mishra	
	Manav Kaul	
	Deepak Dobriyal	
	Piyush Mishra	
	Vivek Mishra	
Music by	Akash Sagar	
Cinematography	Chirantan Das	
Editing by	Shyam K. Salgonkar	
Release date(s)	9 March 2007	
Running time	160 min	
Country	India	
Language	Hindi	

1971 is a 2007 Hindi war film directed by Amrit Sagar, and written by Piyush Mishra and Amrit Sagar, based on a true story of prisoners of war after the Indo-Pak war of 1971. The film features an ensemble cast of Manoj Bajpai, Ravi Kishan, Piyush Mishra, Deepak Dobriyal and others. At the National Film Award, it won the National Film Award for Best Feature Film in Hindi^[1]

The film is an account of the escape of six soldiers of the Indian Army taken as prisoners of war by Pakistan Army, during the Indo-Pakistani War of 1971.

Plot summary

The Camp

The story takes place in Pakistan in 1977, six years after the 1971 Indo-Pakistan War. The scene opens to show a POW camp at an undisclosed location in Pakistan. Indian soldiers are holding a morning parade. As the Pakistanis Major Karamat and Colonel Sheriar Khan walk by, the Indians turn their backs on them in a gesture of disrespect. The cause for this disrespect is soon known as we see the Indian Major Suraj Singh (Manoj Bajpai) being called out of barrack Number 6 for interrogation by the Pakistanis. He is from the 18 Rajputana Rifles and was caught in the Uri sector in December 1971 as he ran out of ammunition. Before being brought to this camp, he was held in Kot Lakhpat, Lahore, where he was punished twice for attempting to escape. Now, he was put in barrack Number 6 as punishment for a third attempt. Colonel Sheriar Khan taunts him as to the condition of his fellow POWs in the barracks and asks him who else aided him in his escape attempt. Major Suraj Singh refuses to reveal his accomplices, and is sent back to barrack Number 6 for a few more days. He has already spent three days there.

We see some of the other POWs; Captain Kabir (Kumud Mishra), Captain Jacob (Ravi Kishan) and Pali discussing the camp in general. They wonder why the Indians, who were so far held in various jails all over Pakistan, have been brought to this camp. They take note of the fact that the camp is well-facilitated and that they are receiving good treatment as POWs. We also see Karamat and Khan discussing the inmates of barrack Number 6. The inmates are Indian POWs from the 1965 and 1971 wars who have lost their sanity. This is Major Suraj Singh's punishment; to be imprisoned in this part of the POW camp. Out of magnanimityColonel Sheriar Khan orders that Suraj be released the next morning.

Arrival Of More POWs

The next morning, an army truck is driving towards the camp. This truck has a few more Indian POWs. This group includes Flight Lieutenant Ram (Manav Kaul), Flight Lieutenant Gurtu (Deepak Dobriyal) and Colonel Puri. The Flight Lieutenants, being youngsters, are of a bright disposition, and look for something or the other to be cheerful about despite their being captive. When the truck stops at a side road and the POWs are allowed to relieve themselves, Ram and Gurtu contemplate the idea of jumping into the valley and running away. Then, they give up the idea, as they are too weak to do so. For consolation, they steal a guard's wallet and get a Pakistani army ID card.

They reach the camp and are introduced to the other inmates already present. No one has any idea as to the reason they were taken there.

Hope Against Hope

Major Suraj Singh and his men, especially Captain Kabir, Captain Jacob and Subedar Ahmed, keep their own spirits alive by caring for the broken souls in barrack Number 6, and by remembering their own kin back home. No matter how good the facilities in the camp, they are still prisoners and they hope to return home someday.

By asking the guards a few innocuous questions and putting their answers together, the POWs realize that they are in a place less than 200 km from the Indo-Pak border. (The place, it is revealed later, is Chaklala.) When Colonel Puri is told of this and the idea of an escape is put forward, he overrules it. His reasons are that perhaps they will finally be repatriated and that a failed attempt could result in all of them being killed.

The Reason

A jail in Multan is being examined by a joint delegation of the International Red Cross Society and the Pakistan Human Rights Commission. They are accompanied by some Indian ladies who claim that their kin are held prisoner. Their proof is that letters written by their missing kin bear the addresses of Pakistani jails. The women are being shown around by Colonel Shakoor, and they are distraught to see no trace of their loved ones here. The head of the Human Rights Commission, Sabeena Jahangir, signs a document stating that they are satisfied with the results of the search.

Here we understand the reason why the Indian POWs were brought to Chaklala: The Pakistani military/government bowed to international pressure and allowed the delegation to examine the jails. The POWs has to be hidden away in a secret camp for the duration of the delegation's visit in Pakistan.

The Repatriation And The Realization

Colonel Shakoor arrives at the Chaklala camp; he informs Colonel Puri and Major Singh that all the POWs will be repatriated. He also says that as there are some formalities to be fulfilled, they will have to remain there for nearly two months. The POWs are further informed that the same night they will be treated to an open-air screening of a recent popular movie followed by a banquet. Major Singh, Captain Kabir and Subedar Ahmed are distrustful of Colonel Shakoor's words, although the other prisoners celebrate their imminent return home.

That night, while the movie is being screened, Ahmed steals a newspaper from an army jeep and calls Major Singh and Captains Kabir and Jacob into the barracks. From reading the newspaper, they learn that General Zia Ul-Haq has overthrown Zulfikar Ali Bhutto in a military coup and formed a new government. Further, General Zia has stated that all Indian soldiers who were taken prisoner so far have been returned and, as proof, he has allowed the International Red Cross Society to inspect the Pakistani jails. Since no POW was found, General Zia has reasserted the Pakistani government's innocence in this matter. The four soldiers now understand the reason why they were taken to this camp. Also, that they were being provided with good facilities so that they would not think of escaping. Then, they realize that they are being overheard and discover that the eavesdroppers are Ram and Gurtu. They overpower them and are about to thrash the two, when the Flight Lieutenants inform them that they too wish to escape to India. They prove their willingness by producing the ID card they had stolen earlier.

The First Steps

The six soldiers decide to escape, and they must waste no time. They take two steps the same night. First, they request the Pakistanis for a group photo. This request is granted. Second, at the dinner, Ahmed attempts to strike Jacob, for which he is punished by Colonel Puri the next morning. When Ahmed refuses to bear out his punishment, Colonel Puri wishes to court-martial him. The POWs ask for the use of a barrack to serve as a courtroom, a request that is also granted.

The Pakistanis are preparing to celebrate the Pakistani Independence Day (14 August) by having a song performance by Ms. Sultana Khanum, a ghazal singer. The Indians, who wish to celebrate the Indian Independence Day (15 August), ask for fresh uniforms, paints to make an Indian flag and jaggery for making a sweet drink. The Pakistanis grant them all their requests in order to keep them pacified.

While the court martial is going on, Ram and Gurtu combine the paints to dye the uniforms in the colours of the Pakistani Army. Maj. Karamat is presiding over the court martial. Here, with Kabir as the prosecutor and Suraj as the defense, the would-be escapees impress upon Karamat that Puri hates Ahmed simply because he is a Muslim. This prompts Karamat into starting the proceedings to implant Ahmed as a spy in the Indian Army.

Initial Success

While Karamat is interviewing Ahmed to offer sending him back to India so that he can spy for the Pakistanis, Kabir and Jacob stealthily make their way to the camp periphery. They trigger the alarm and run back into the camp before they can be seen. The guards conclude that it must have been triggered by a wild animal. At this, Karamat switches off the alarm from the electricity room adjacent to his own office. Ahmed follows him like a dimwitted man and sees the location of the switch.

As Ahmed's repatriation formalities are being fulfilled, he manages to steal from Karamat's office the accessories and insignia that are present on Pakistani uniforms. Ahmed also learns that the electricity room houses the communications line and the power generator. He passes on this information to Suraj Singh and the others (Kabir, Jacob, Ram and Gurtu).

The plan is to create a stampede on the night of 14 August and escape under the pretext of escorting the ghazal singer out of the camp. But to cause a stampede, they need to detonate a bomb. For this, Ram and Gurtu go on a pickpocketing spree and bring back to Jacob (an explosives and topography expert) a lot of matchboxes. They remove the phosphorus heads of the matchsticks and make a crude bomb out of the combined match-heads. They intend to throw this bomb into the ammunitions room to create a blast. Once the bomb is ready, they tie it to the lower side of the floorboards to hide it.

The group photograph has been given to Colonel Puri. To steal it from him, Ram and Gurtu make an alcoholic drink out of the jaggery and soon many of the POWs are drunk. Colonel Puri is too drunk to notice the real reason behind the drinking session. The photo is stolen. Out of this, the face of Suraj Singh is cut out and stuck onto the stolen ID card.

The fake Pakistani uniforms are ready. So are the bomb and the ID card. The six men just have to wait for the song performance before starting their action. At this point, Suraj tells the others that the real intent of the mission is to alert the Indian authorities of the presence of Indian POWs in Pakistan. He also tells them that one or more of them may die while escaping and that their only consolation will be that they will have died as escapees instead of as prisoners.

The Breakout

While the floor is being cleaned with water that morning, the bomb gets soaked, but the escape team does not know this. As 14 August dawns, the six men wear two layers of uniforms; the Indian uniforms on top of the Pakistani ones. By evening, the ghazal singer is ready to give her song performance.

The senior Pakistani officers, including Shakoor and Karamat, are among the audience. The Indian POWs are allowed to sit as a separate audience to enjoy the songs. As the performance begins, Jacob and Kabir sneak away from the main POW group at separate times. Ahmed goes into Karamat's office, telling the guard that the Major has asked for his jacket. Once inside, he knocks the guard unconscious and through a side door lets in Kabir, who has changed into his Pakistani uniform. He goes into the electricity room to disconnect the communication lines and power lines. He cuts the communication lines first, then, as per the plan, he must wait for the blast before he can cut the power line.

Jacob reaches the crude bomb and realizes that it is now soaked. He tells Ahmed, who is now by his side, that the mission must be called off. Then he rushes off to stop Suraj. However, before Ahmed can stop Kabir, he impatiently cuts the power line, plunging the camp in darkness. Ahmed does the last thing left to him to save his friends. He runs to the ammunitions room, forces his way in, locks himself in and primes one of the grenades. In the few seconds before the blast, he closes his eyes and thinks of his family; his aged parents, his wife and his daughter whom he has never seen and who would now be six. The room blows up into a ball of fire.

The remaining five men carry out the plan as conceived. There is a stampede and a general confusion as the soldiers attempt to put out the fire. Suraj and his men escort the ghazal singer out of the camp in an army truck. A few Pakistani soldiers already inside the truck become their unwitting captives. The Indians are no longer POWs, they are now soldiers on a mission.

The Aftermath

At the camp, the Pakistani guards take a head count of the prisoners and, seeing six of them missing, including Suraj Singh, discover that an escape has taken place. They try to locate the truck escorting Sultana Khanum. They also alert Major Bilal Mallik (Piyush Mishra), who is in charge of a helicopter, to help in their search.

Meanwhile, the escape truck has gone on a highway to Abbottabad. At a lonely spot, the escapees decide to get rid of their captives. One of them tries to rush his captors and in a scuffle shoots Jacob in the stomach. Suraj and Kabir shoot the Pakistani dead. Jacob lies to his comrades, saying that the bullet has just grazed him. The escapees relieve the Pakistani soldiers of their weapons and wallets and knock them unconscious. They also hide the body of the dead soldier. They are about to render Sultana unconscious, when she says that she was once the head of the Pakistan Human Rights Commission. She says that she was aware of the Red Cross raids across Pakistan in search of the Indian POWs. She is sympathetic to the plight of the POWs and promises to misguide the search party if she is left unharmed. In a touching line, she says to Suraj, "Hamaare mulk se thhoda yakeen hee lekar jaao." ("If nothing else, at least take home some trust from our country.")

The Night

The escapees are in a different truck now. They remember the blast at the camp and understand that it was done by Ahmed. They have gone off the highway to Abbottabad and are on another one, which leads to Muzaffarabad. The search party, including Major Mallik, has reached the escape truck, where they find Sultana Khanum, who has been left unharmed. She says that the escapees were in plain clothes and were talking of going towards Islamabad. The searchers believe her and arrange for her to be sent to her home. However, Major Mallik notices that the military map is missing from the truck's dashboard. When he asks Colonel Shakoor if the escapees were in any way connected to the army, Shakoor answers that it does not matter and that the escaped prisoners have to be brought back. In the meanwhile, the Chaklala camp is hurriedly closed and the Indian POWs are moved out of there.

Major Mallik separates from the search party and heads out in his chopper to cover the highway to Muzaffarabad. At a checkpoint, the escapees, led by Suraj Singh, gain access with the help of the fake ID card. Suraj asks the guard the reason for the checkpoint and is told that there is a search on for six fugitives. From this, he understands that the Pakistanis do not want it to be known that the fugitives are actually POWs.

Sultana Khanum phones Sabeena Jahangir from a wayside hotel and informs her of the presence of Indian POWs in a camp in Chaklala. She says that she is ready to provide testimony to that effect.

By early dawn, the searchers converge at the military hospital in Abbottabad to glean information from the injured soldiers. Here, Colonel Sheriar Khan and Major Azzam Baig berate Major Karamat and Colonel Shakoor for letting the escape take place. When Major Mallik asks if the escapees are Indian POWs, they grudgingly tell him the truth, and he agrees to maintain the secrecy of the search. They then talk to an injured soldier, who tells them about the preparedness of the fugitives. When the soldier mentions that they even have an ID card, Major Mallik realizes that he had actually seen them passing through the checkpoint on the highway to Muzaffarabad. The searchers prepare to go there.

The Wild Chase At Muzaffarabad

On the morning of 15 August, the escapees arrive at Muzaffarabad. The truck-driver goes on his way, and the soldiers check into a hotel. Once inside the hotel room, Suraj instructs Ram and Gurtu to purchase some necessary medical items from the local stores. He then asks Jacob to plot out an escape route on the map they took off the first escape truck. He charts out a route going up to Baramulla, India. This route avoids the main highway and goes through hills and villages. The last twenty kilometres have to be covered on foot, because the heavy snowfall makes it impossible for any vehicle to pass. Jacob then collapses and the others realize that he was not merely grazed by the bullet, but that his gunshot wound was life threatening. Kabir holds him tightly while Suraj attempts to remove the bullet from his stomach.

Meanwhile, in the town, while Ram and Gurtu are purchasing medicines and painkillers for Jacob, Ram notices a military convoy approaching. The search party is here. He and Gurtu run to the hotel to warn the others. Although they were not seen by the searchers, the place is soon swarming with soldiers. In the hotel room, Jacob finds the pain unbearable and reaches for a pistol. Ram and Gurtu reach the room just in time to see him shoot himself in the head. Although the four men are stunned, they have no time to waste. They cover Jacob in a blanket, take the map and the bags, and flee through the window.

As they run through the side streets of the town, the Pakistanis are on their heels. When the fugitives reach the main street, they have to hide behind a truck as it is crowded with soldiers led by Colonel Shakoor. They cannot remain behind the truck for long, because the column of soldiers chasing them is getting closer. Then Ram spots a motorbike, he tells Suraj and the others to be ready to take it. Before they can stop him, he runs into Colonel Shakoor's view, shoots his guard and runs into a side-lane. As the soldiers run after him, the fugitives hide themselves under the tarpaulin of another truck, thereby escaping notice by the column that was chasing them. This column joins the other soldiers in the chase. As a straggler is attempting to start the motorbike, the escapees (Suraj, Kabir and Gurtu) run out of their hiding place, beat him unconscious and ride away on it.

Ram has taken control of an army jeep after killing a few soldiers, including Major Azzam Baig. He too has sustained a few bullet injuries, and is now leading the Pakistanis away from his friends. He now has only one pistol and one grenade for weapons. He leads the soldiers out of the town as far away as he can. The chasing convoy is led by Colonel Shakoor, who is berating his men to drive faster. Major Mallik is in the second jeep. Suddenly, Major Suraj Singh turns in from a dirt road and is riding next to the leading jeep. Colonel Shakoor stares into the faces of Suraj, Gurtu and Kabir. The jeep driver's face registers terror as he sees Kabir priming a grenade. Kabir lobs the grenade into the jeep as Suraj picks up speed and races away. In the next few seconds, the convoy comes to a standstill and Colonel Shakoor leaps out of his jeep. He runs a few steps and throws himself flat on the ground. The jeep explodes as the Indians race away. A stunned Major Mallik is unable to believe his eyes. The expression on his face sums up the scene: he did not expect the Indians to pull off a move like that.

The Sacrifice

The men on the bike catch up with Ram, who is relieved to see them safe. Gurtu asks innocently, "Listen, sir, is this the road to Delhi?" then tells him to watch where he is driving. But their victory is short-lived as they are attacked by a truck coming from the opposite direction. Although Kabir and Gurtu manage to shoot the driver of the truck and the shooters in its front, Suraj is forced to divert the bike into a ditch. Ram stops the jeep and watches his friends careening wildly downslope. They hit a rock and the bike cartwheels, then lands on Kabir's right leg. As the bike slides down the slope, it drags him with it. Suraj and Gurtu are lucky to survive with only a few scratches.

Ram is shot by the soldiers who are climbing out of the back of the truck. Gurtu is climbing upslope to rush to his aid with a furious Suraj attempting to stop him. Ram, still alive, sees the scene: Shakoor and Mallik have caught up and are driving towards him, the soldiers from the truck ahead are running towards him, and Gurtu and Suraj are dangerously close to revealing their position in the ditch. He quickly turns his jeep around and, with the soldiers still running after him, drives straight at Shakoor's vehicle. Mallik, seated next to Shakoor, orders the driver to stop and reverse. He is sure that Ram is playing a fresh new trick, while Shakoor wants to get closer to Ram so that he can shoot him dead. Ram slams into them at high speed, causing serious injury to Shakoor, the soldiers in Shakoor's truck and to himself. Shakoor, who is now unconscious, is laid on the ground as Mallik orders for an ambulance. Mallik then walks to Ram's jeep to see what he was trying to do.

Ram is bleeding profusely, he has a few breaths' worth of life left in him and he has primed a grenade. When Mallik sees the grenade, he shouts a warning for everyone to run away. As they all run away from the jeep, Mallik leading them, it explodes. In the ditch, Suraj and Gurtu see the explosion. Suraj covers Gurtu's mouth so that his cries cannot be heard by the men on the road. They watch the jeep and the truck go up in flames, then Suraj forcibly turns Gurtu around and they come back to the motorbike, which has Kabir still partially pinned underneath it. The blast has claimed many lives, including Colonel Shakoor's. As Mallik directs the rescue, Colonel Sheriar Khan catches up. Simultaneously, the fugitives get the bike upright and drive away.

The Intervention

While Mallik and Khan are directing the rescue, Sabeena Jahangir arrives there with the Red Cross delegates and questions Khan as to his lies regarding the Indian POWs. Mallik explains that this blast was the result of an accident involving two vehicles and that they are in no way connected to the POW issue. They go to the Muzaffarabad base, where in a closed room, Colonel Sheriar Khan is informed on the phone that a delegate has been sent to recall Sabeena Jahangir. When he expresses disbelief and frustration that the POW matter is now known, Mallik tells him that catching the POWs is now difficult. He says that in addition to being highly motivated, they are also military experts. He mentions Ram's suicide bombing of the trucks as proof of how far they are willing to go. But until the arrival of the delegate, he says, Colonel Sheriar Khan must keep Jahangir pacified. When Khan attempts to tell Jahangir that there is a misunderstanding regarding the accident and the blast, she says that the occurrence of one blast at Chaklala and within one day another one at Muzaffarabad is highly suspicious. She alleges that the Pakistani

military have deceived the Red Cross and the Pakistani public by lying that there are no Indian POWs in the country. Just then, the High Commission delegate arrives and shows Jahangir an order to vacate the area immediately. She glares at Mallik and Khan, then leaves with her colleagues. As soon as she is gone, the soldiers spring into action resuming their search.

Saluting Fallen Comrades

However, this intervention has bought off valuable time for the escapees. They have gone on the route marked by Jacob and reached the point from where they have to go by foot. The bike is anyway out of petrol. While Suraj Singh throws the bike down a mountainside, Gurtu has leaned Kabir against a tree and is making three mounds in the snow; one for each man who died on this mission. Seeing this, Suraj points out that they sacrificed their lives for their battle, so they must be respected as martyrs. He, Kabir and Gurtu stand up and salute this memorial. Then, they walk on into the snow, Kabir being held up by the others.

The Cold Night

The Indian soldiers have reached a point where they must stop and wait until dark before resuming their journey. They risk being caught if they go any further while there is still light. Suraj and Gurtu tie a splint improvised out of twigs onto Kabir's fractured leg.

By nightfall, the Pakistanis have reached a stream where they retrieve the bike that was thrown down the mountain. Khan and Mallik disagree in their conclusions. While Khan is certain that the fugitives have died and that their bodies should be lying close by, Mallik thinks that they could have thrown the bike down the mountainside and continued on foot. Khan berates Mallik for overestimating the fugitives. Mallik steps aside, and while Khan continues the search in the vicinity, gives voice to his own thoughts: "When the bloody war was over, there was never any need to detain these soldiers. Not only have we incurred the curses of their kin, we have also created a nuisance for ourselves. If I say this aloud, I will be declared a traitor. If I don't, then this Pakistani conscience of mine will torment me for life."

Suraj awakens Gurtu and Kabir to continue their journey. Kabir is not able to move his leg. Suraj removes the shoe on his injured leg only to see that it has turned black. Kabir says that it is frostbite and that it will climb up his body. However, when he requests to be left behind, Suraj will not hear of it. He carries Kabir bodily on his back, and their trek continues. They can do nothing but walk on. They keep themselves sane by exchanging little jokes and talking about their hometowns. When Suraj stumbles under Kabir's weight, Kabir points out that this way a two-hour journey will stretch to six hours. Suraj will again hear none of it. Sometime later, Kabir tells Suraj that he respects him more than he would respect his own father. Suraj replies that in the army a senior officer is like a father anyway.

Unparalleled Heroism

It is dawn. The three soldiers have stopped to rest by the side of a path winding through the mountains. Kabir and Gurtu are asleep; Suraj is sitting huddled next to them. He sees something far below him in the valley. He rises, then wakes up Gurtu and asks him to take a look. They strain their eyes. They cannot believe what they are seeing. It is an Indian army outpost with the Indian Flag raised above it. They cheer, scream, and laugh in jubilation. But when Gurtu tries to rouse Kabir, he falls limply to one side. He is dead. With nothing else left to do, Suraj and Gurtu bury Kabir in the snow and walk on towards the Indian side of the border. It is about a few hundred yards away.

Suddenly they hear the sound of a helicopter. It carries Colonel Sheriar Khan and Major Bilal Mallik. As Khan fires at them with a machine gun, Mallik cautions him that they are too close to the Line Of Control (LOC). As Suraj and Gurtu attempt to run, they end up taking a few bullet wounds. Gurtu is shot in his leg, which disables him from standing up. The Indian soldiers at the outpost, who see the helicopter, think that the Pakistanis are starting a skirmish. They get ready to fire a rocket.

Gurtu crawls into a rock alcove and asks Suraj to proceed alone without him. Suraj replies that he has no family back home in India and that if he reaches home he will do so with his companions. Suraj then says that they must survive for the sake of their comrades who died in the escape and for the sake of those who are still prisoners. Meanwhile, Mallik mutinies against Khan and orders the pilot to turn the chopper around. The Indians fire a rocket at the chopper. As the helicopter turns around and flies away behind the mountains, the rocket explodes harmlessly on a mountainside. On the ground, Gurtu is unable to walk, so Suraj seats him against a rock. He promises to bring help from the Indian side.

Major Suraj Singh calls out to the Indians, but he has been a prisoner for six years. As he calls for help, his voice stammers and fails many times. The Indians simply do not or cannot hear him. Then suddenly gunshots are heard and Suraj collapses. A column of Pakistani soldiers is running towards the two fugitives. Suraj is shot badly. The Indian soldiers rush to their defensive positions. As Gurtu is still recovering from the shock, Suraj struggles to his feet. He tells Gurtu that he will be back with help even before the Pakistanis arrive. He is still the father figure his men loved him for being. The Pakistanis are rushing on, screaming obscenities. Suraj runs towards the Indian outpost. As the Pakistanis fire at him, the Indians, thinking that a skirmish is on, fire back at the Pakistanis. This pins them down considerably so their firing on Suraj does not have much effect. Then the Indian officer sees Suraj through his binoculars and orders his men to stop firing as he realizes that the Pakistanis were chasing a fugitive. Then the Pakistanis are able to come out into the open and fire at Suraj. He nevertheless runs as hard as he can. There is an explosion close to his feet, probably a land mine, and he is thrown forward to the ground by the force of the blast.

Gurtu is looking at Suraj over the distance. His face has a look of peace. Suraj has reached the Indian side. He slowly stands up and looks ahead. He is home. He looks at the soldiers and at the flag above them. He is too overcome by emotion to say even a word. The Indians see a man in Pakistani army uniform before them. Suraj raises his right hand as if reaching for the flag. Then the Pakistanis fire one shot, which goes through Suraj's heart. He falls to the ground and dies.

The Pakistani soldiers have reached the border. Khan and Mallik make their way to their head. The Indian officer shouts a question across the no-man's-land, asking what the matter is. Khan replies that the dead fugitive was a deserter from the Pakistani army who was court-martialled and had killed two civilians while escaping. He asks the Indians to search the dead man for an ID card, which should confirm his identity. The Indians find on Suraj's person the fake ID card, which had got him through the Pakistani check post. The officer grants permission for the Pakistanis to take away the corpse and warns them to be careful in future. As Suraj's body is dragged back to the Pakistani side, Mallik removes his beret in a gesture of respect to the man who, in his own way, did reach his country.

Epilogue

It is now 2007. The place is Multan Jail in Pakistan. We see an old man walking in the prison compound. He has made five little mounds of earth and he is putting a few flowers on them. He sits on the ground next to them and leafs through what was once Major Suraj Singh's prison diary. This old man is Gurtu. He now has only two motives in his life: to hope to return home and to keep alive the memory of his five friends.

The screen now blurs, and a Voice over informs us that there are still 83 Indian POW's of the 1971 and the 1965 Indo Pak wars who are languishing in Pakistani Jails. They were last seen alive in 1983

Cast

- · Manoj Bajpai as Major Suraj Singh
- · Ravi Kishan as Capt. Jacob
- Piyush Mishra as Maj. Bilal Malik
- · Deepak Dobriyal as Flight Lt. Gurtu
- Chittaranjan Giri as Ahmed
- Manav Kaul as Flight Lt. Ram
- · Kumud Mishra as Capt. Kabir
- · Gyan Prakash as Col. Puri
- · Maj. Bikramjeet Singh as Col. Shakoor
- Sanjeev Wilson as Maj. Azzam baig
- · Satyajit Sharma as Commander of the Indian checkpost

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Kurukshetra (2008 film) 324

Kurukshetra (2008 film)

Kurukshetra	
Directed by	Major Ravi
Produced by	Santhosh Damodar
Written by	Major Ravi
Starring	Mohanlal Biju Menon Sania Singh Anjana Chandran
Music by	Sidharth Vipin
Studio	Damor Cinemas
Release date(s)	October 8, 2008
Language	Malayalam

Kurukshetra is a 2008 Malayalam film written and directed by Major Ravi and starring Mohanlal.

It is a sequel to the 2006 movie *Keerthi Chakra* and the second in the *Major Mahadevan* series. The movie was a hit at the box office. [1][2]

Kurukshetra was Mohanlal's second film with director Major Ravi. Other main actors in the film included Biju Menon, Anil Murali, Suraj Venjaramood, Cochin Haneefa, Anjana Chandran, Arjun and Sania Singh. The film is based on the 1999 kargil war between India and Pakistan. The political situation of the conflict is portrayed from an Indian perspective in the film. It brings out the majestic and courageous effort of the brave soldiers in the war. Mohanlal was awarded with Lt.colonel title for brilliant performance and the efforts he took for that. The film involved shooting in the high altitudes of kargil. The film is directed br Maj.ravi who is a former soldier.

The series' third part, *Kandahar* (starring Mohanlal and Amitabh Bachchan), was released in December 2010 in four languages.

Cast

Actor	Role
Mohanlal	Colonel Mahadevan
Siddeeq	Fussy Ahmed
Biju Menon	Major Rajesh
Sania Singh	
Cochin Haneefa	
Bineesh Kodiyeri	
Sukumari	
Suraj Venjaramoodu	
Pradeep Chandran	
Anjana Chandran	
Major Ravi	Cameo

Kurukshetra (2008 film) 325

Soudtrack

Kurukshetra		
Soundtrack album by Sidharth Vipin		
Released	2008	
Genre	Film	
Label	Manorama Music	
Producer	Santhosh Damodar	

The movie have four songs composed by debutant Sidharth Vipin and lyrics by Gireesh Puthenchery and Bombay S. Kamal (*Chalo Chalo*).

Track	Song Title	Singer(s)
1	Jwalamukhi	Najim Arshad, Arun Gopan, Roshan, Nithin Raj
2	Oru Yathramozhiyode	M. G. Sreekumar, Swetha
3	Thathamma	Najim Arshad, Arun Gopan, Roshan, Nithin Raj
4	Chalo Chalo Jawan	Kailash Kher
5	Oru Yathramozhiyode	Swetha
6	Jwalamukhi	Intrumental

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Miniseries/Dramas (Pakistani)

Angar Wadi

Angar Wadi (Urdu: انگار وادی) is a Pakistani television play/drama. It was aired by PTV in 1994, comprises on 15 episodes. It was directed by Tariq Mairaj, written and produced by Abdul Rauf Khalid. [1][2]

Plot

Angar Wadi was an Urdu language drama, its English meaning is Valley of Fire. It was totally based on the situation of Kashmir.

Cast

- Atiqa Odho
- · Hasam Qazi
- · Nisar Qadri
- · Rauf Khalid
- · Samina Ahmad
- · Navid Naqvi
- · Fareedullah
- · Shagufta Ali
- · Qavi Khan
- Khayyam Sarhadi

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- [2] APP November 25, 2011 (2011-11-25). "Prominent writer, actor, Rauf Khalid dies in road accident | Entertainment" (http://www.dawn.com/2011/11/25/prominent-writer-actor-rauf-khalid-dies-in-road-accident.html). Dawn.Com. . Retrieved 2012-01-15.

External links

- Angar Wadi (http://www.facebook.com/pages/Angar-Wadi/335256835200) at the Facebook
- Watch: Angar Wadi (http://media.lashmusic.com/angar-wadi-ptv-classic-drama)

Laag (TV series) 327

Laag (TV series)

Laag (Urdu: ציצ) is a Pakistani drama series which was run by PTV between 1995-2000. Its story was based on the issue of Kashmir and mostly shooted in Kashmir. This was written, directed and produced by Abdul Rauf Khalid. [1]

Story

It details how the local Kashmiri population is incited towards terrorism against India by extremists and insurgents from Pakistan.

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External links

• Watch PTV dramas (http://www.thepakistani.tv/)

Alpha Bravo Charlie 328

Alpha Bravo Charlie

Alpha Bravo Charlie		
Format	Military miniseries	
Created by	ISPR	
	Shoaib Mansoor	
Starring	Qasim Khan	
	Abdullah Mahmood	
	Faraz Inam	
	Shahnaaz Khwaja	
	Aarshid Kazmi	
	Wiqar Ahmed	
	Hashmat Shaikh	
	Rafar Moeen	
	Malik Ata Muhammad Khan	
Narrated by	Zia-ur Rehman (subtitles)	
Country of origin	C Pakistan	
No. of episodes	14	
Production		
Running time	approx 40 min.	
Broadcast		
Original channel	PTV	
Original run	May 1998 – July 1998	

Alpha Bravo Charlie (Urdu script: النا براوو چارلى) is an action and thriller drama series, produced by ISPR and directed by acclaimed Pakistani drama and film director Shoaib Mansoor. It was hugely popular and set a record for TRPs (Television Rating Points) in Pakistan. It is a sequel to drama series Sunehre Din (Golden Days) with some of the same cast. The series ran on PTV during the first half of 1998. The events in the drama involve romance and comedy, while reflecting the Pakistan Army's military operational involvement in the Bosnian War and Siachen conflict. [1][2][3]

Major characters

The script involves four characters, three of them army officers, and the only female who is an educator in a public school.

- Faraz Ahmed (Faraz Inam): A Captain in the army, and a son of a rich landlord Malik Ata Muhammad Khan of Kot Fateh Khan in Punjab, Faraz graduated from the 80th PMA Long Course with a Sword of Honor— Imtiazi Sanad. He belongs to the 32nd Cavalry Lahore of the Armoured Corps. He is a confident, ambitious man a Mr. Perfect who is well-built, good looking and wealthy to go along with his excellent academic record. He owns his own Mercedes, a Black C180. Ahmad, unlike his friends, was not assigned to any of the combat actions. He uses its resources to open a charity school for the special children with Shahnaz. As time passes, Ahmad was made a general officer (3-star rank) in the army.
- Kashif Kirmani (Captain Abdullah Mehmood): An active duty army captain and son of a senior Army officer, a two star Major-General, Kashif graduated from the 80th PMA Long Course and belongs to the 32nd Cavalry Lahore of the Armoured Corps. He is a 3rd generation army officer who initially dislikes being in the Army, but later proves himself. He is the main character responsible for providing humor through his funny mischief. He is a

Alpha Bravo Charlie 329

first cousin to Shahnaaz, the series' leading female character. Captain Kashif Kirmani was stationed in the high-altitude mountains of Siachen Glacier and commanded a mountaineering unit there. Brig. Hashim observed an Indian Army's troop rotation further along Pakistan's border via an army helicopter, belonging to Pakistan Army Corps of Aviation. Captain Kashif Kirmani volunteered for the operation to divert the military movement made by the Indian Army, was and thoroughly briefed with the dangerous mission. Captain Kashif Kirmani and his companion, Fida Ahmed from SSG, was dropped off at a cold, unknown area, covered with heavy snow, where the team performs the mountaineering climb and stunts on a high-altitude cliff. During climbing Fida was hit by the firing of the Indian Army. Captain Kashif reaches the top alone before the Indian Army and killed the whole team of the Indian Army alone. However, an Indian Army soldier, the only one left during battle, succeeded in climbing to the top of the mountain but was intercepted by Captain Kashif Kirmani. After inquiring about his unit, Captain Kashif Kirmani decides to let the Indian army soldier go. Captain Kashif Kirmani tried to contact his commanding base but the communication is disabled due to a heavy snow storm. Captain Kashif Kirmani is eventually picked up by the Pakistan Army, after three days of being exposed in the snow storm, and was taken to a military hospital. There his shins and arms were amputated. Captain Kashif Kirmani received an honorary discharge but at his insistence to stay in the army, he was transferred to the Science and Technology Division of Pakistan Army. Captain Kashif Kirmani later learned about the fate of Captain Gulsher Khan, who went MIA in Bosnia.

- Gulsher Khan (Captain M. Qasim Khan): a Captain in the army and son of a JCO, he graduated from the 80th PMA Long Course and belonged to the 9th FF Battalion, Lahore of the FF Regiment. Mild mannered, modest and humble, he married Shahnaz Sher and settled in a luxurious apartment. A few days after his marriage, Khan was sent to Bosnia on a U.N. peacekeeping mission. While a commanding officer of his company, Khan harbored and launched a number of rescue operations to protect Bosnian Muslims, held by the Serbian forces. There, he was among those who received a respectful reputation within the Bosnian community. He befriended a Bosnian woman who fell in love with him and asked him to marry her, which he refused. Khan witnessed the Serb forces' mass murder campaign while protecting the Bosnian Muslims, a mission that he was assigned to lead. In a reconnaissance military operation at an unknown place in Serbia, Khan and his unit was ambushed by the Serb forces. Both sides made contact and Khan's team tried to evade the battle which, however, was unsuccessful. Khan then tried to launch a counter-operation against the Serb forces. The long battle ended when his unit was brutally murdered by the Serbian forces. Khan was taken by the Serbs as POW. He was the only officer to be captured by the Serb forces and was given treatment. The Commanding base and the United Nations assumed that Khan' was also dead during this mission. Meanwhile, Khan tried to contact the UN Headquarters, proving the that he was still alive. After days of being captured and held, Khan attempted an escape from the hidden camp where he was held. The team of Serbs followed Khan, and quickly intercepted him before he reached a forest. After receiving orders, the Serbs opened fired on him and shot him in the head. Khan was buried in an unknown place, and was searched by the Serbs before being buried. One soldier found a torn 500 rupees and examined it. While they departed, the soldier put the 500 rupee note on Khan's grave and gave it a final look while leaving with his unit.
- Shahnaaz Sher (Shahnaaz Khawaja): Sher is a niece of a retired Lieutenant-General and a Corps Commander of IV Corps. An educated woman, Sher is a Cambridge educated elementary school teacher of special children and has a very straightforward personality with her own philosophy of life. Bold and confident she is the love interest of Faraz, and is also first cousin of Kashif. She later married Captain Gulsher Khan. Sher visited Bosnia, with Kirmani and Faraz, to find Khan as he sent a letter to her proving he's still alive. She interviewed many of the Bosnian Muslims who were rescued by Khan. Sher also interviewed Khan's Bosnian friend who had once asked him to marry her. Unable to find Khan, Sher returned to Pakistan with Khan's friends. In the end, Sher's only son is also seen becoming an army officer, who graduates from Kakul Academy.

Alpha Bravo Charlie 330

Story

As the name indicates, the drama is based on the life and times of the same three characters- Faraz, Kashif, and Gulsher also known as Alpha, Bravo, and Charlie respectively- and their friendship. These three passionate young men wish to start their careers in the Pakistan army. In the initial episodes, ample footage is used to detail the background of every individual and the circumstances under which they enroll for the armed forces. Faraz is Mr Perfect, the guy who does everything right while Gulsher is a polite, simple minded, shy person. Kashif is originally the funny man responsible for providing most of the comic relief through his antics, pranks and mischief. Eventually the series morphs into a coming of age story where the lead characters realize that there is more to life than their present happy-go-lucky lifestyle as they experience reality in all its fragility and extremities - jealousy, heartbreaks, trauma and death. Another important character is Shahnaaz, a confident, educated and well-mannered young lady, who plays an important role in the lives of these friends. Her involvement with them in the role of friend, wife and confidente adds reality to the series that is poignant and touching on a personal level. The main theme of the drama is that every person should lead a purposeful existence and that if one has the will and the passion, they can achieve anything.

Popularity

This drama series became extremely popular in Pakistan soon after it went on air on PTV. Although the main cast consisted of New Actors, the drama sent a virtual-life message to the masses. Being informative, entertaining and thought-provoking with apt use of humour, the series is regarded as one of the most well-scripted and famous drama series ever produced in Pakistan.

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Sipahi Maqbool Hussain 331

Sipahi Maqbool Hussain

Sipahi Maqbool Hussain			
	The opening title screen for Sipahi Maqbool Hussain		
Format	miniseries		
Created by	ISPR		
	Interflow Communications Limited		
Starring	Raja Haider, Batin Farooqi, Riaz Mastana, Hassan Niazi, Reeja and Ghazala Butt		
Country of origin	C Pakistan		
No. of episodes	6		
Production			
Running time	approx 40 min.		
Broadcast			
Original channel	TV One, PTV		
Original airing	20th April 2008		

Siphai Maqbool Hussain co-produced by ISPR and Interflow Communications Limited^[1] is a Pakistani miniseries, aired during the month of April 2008, simultaneously on TV One and PTV, that narrates the true story of a Pakistani soldier, Maqbool Hussain, who was injured and taken prisoner by the Indian Army in the 1965 war and spent 40 years in Indian jails. He was released as a civilian prisoner in 2005. During his imprisonment, Hussain was subjected to terrible human rights abuses. The drama pays tribute to Sepoy Maqbool Hussain as an icon of resilience and steadfastness.

Plot

As the story unfolds, Hussain, bearing army No 335139, is shown being hit by enemy fire on the Line of Control at the start of the 1965 war. ^[2] Subsequently, he is taken prisoner by the Indian army, who deny him Prisoner of War status. ^[2] Trained in the traditions of the Pakistan Army, Hussain faces all the suffering and refuses to share any information about his country with his captors — so much so that when they cut out his tongue, he writes 'Pakistan Zindabad' (long live Pakistan) in his own blood. Hussain also becomes mentally ill during his four decades of incarceration. ^[2]

The Actual Event

Sepoy Maqbool Hussain of Azad Kashmir Regiment was declared missing on August 20, 1965 during Operation Gibraltar in Srinagar Area, his relatives said. He was understood to be have been martyred. Forty years later, he crossed the Wagah border in exchange for civilian prisoners. A far cry from the tall, well-built soldier he once was, mentally disoriented, was presumed to be a fisherman like the rest of the group who returned with him. On the homecoming of the soldier, neither his parents, nor his brother of Tarrar Khal on September 17, were in this world to receive him. In his saner moments, he kept writing "No.335139" whenever he was questioned about his identity. Weeks later, officials, realizing the significance of the number, handed him over to the military, under whose care he has been for the past two years. Now he is spending his life under the high attention, and love of Pak Army.

Sipahi Maqbool Hussain 332

Director's comments

Director Haider Imam Rizvi, who has dozens of popular television plays and serials to his credit, told the gathering he and his team had been reduced to tears several times during the filming of the poignant scenes in the drama serial. "In my opinion, the production of 'Sipahi Maqbool Hussain' is more significant than all the 40 serials that I have produced in my entire career," Rizvi said. [3]

Notes

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- $[2] \ http://www.dailytimes.com.pk/default.asp?page=2008\%5C04\%5C16\%5Cstory_16-4-2008_pg7_54$
- [3] http://www.paklinks.com/gs/showbiz-pakistan/284016-sipahi-maqbool-hussain-based-true-story.html

External links

- Pakistani Drama (http://www.lashmusic.com/)
- COAS Kayani paying tribute to Maqbool Hussain (http://www.friendskorner.com/forum/f137/coas-kayani-paying-tribute-sipahi-maqbool-who-faced-43-yrs-indian-torture-74220/)
- Fair & Square: To Sepoy Maqbool Hussain with loveb y Mian Saifur Rehman (http://www.thenews.com.pk/print1.asp?id=116704)

Battles of Indo-Pakistani wars

Operation Barisal

Operation Barisal was a code-name of naval operation conducted by Pakistan Navy intended to free the city of Barisal, East Pakistan from Mukti Bahinis and the dissidents of the Pakistan Defence Forces. It was the part of Operation Searchlight.^[1]

Since the starting of *Searchlight*, the Bahinis had been staging large scale of sabotage missions, disturbing the communications and signals operatives in East Pakistan. The Naval Intelligence found the traced to the city of Barisal, therefore decided to conduct the operation. The *Barisal* was party of *Searchlight* to provide logistic support to Pakistan Army, by first deploying the Pakistan Navy's gun boats and navy personnel on grounds.

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Operation Python 334

Operation Python

Operation Python, a follow up to Operation Trident, was a code name of a naval attack launched on West Pakistan's port city of Karachi by the Indian Navy during the Indo-Pakistani War of 1971. After the first attack during Operation Trident on Karachi port, Pakistan stepped up aerial surveillance of its coast and the presence of large Indian Navy ships gave the impression that another attack was being planned. Pakistan warships attempted to outsmart the Indian Navy by mingling with merchant shipping. To counter these moves, Operation Python was launched on the night on December 8/9, 1971.

Background

Karachi housed the headquarters of the Pakistani Navy and almost the entire fleet was based at Karachi Harbour. Karachi was also the hub of Pakistan's maritime trade, meaning that a blockade would be disastrous for Pakistan's economy. The defence of Karachi harbour was therefore paramount to the Pakistani High Command and it was heavily defended against any airstrikes or naval strikes. Karachi received some of the best defences Pakistan had to offer as well as cover from strike aircraft based at two airfields in the area. The Indian fleet lay 250 miles from Karachi during the day, outside the range of Pakistani aircraft, and most of these aircraft did not possess night-bombing capability. ^[1] The Pakistani Navy had launched submarine operations to gather intelligence on Indian naval efforts. Even so, with multiple intels provided by the submarines, the Navy had failed to divert the naval attacks, due to misleading intelligence and communications.

Operation Trident was an enormous success with no damage to any of the ships of the Indian Naval Task Group, [28] which returned safely. The success of this operation prompted another successful attack on the Pakistani coast, named Operation Python.

Pakistan's Naval Intelligence

The Pakistani Navy had continued its submarine operations in the region, even after the first missile attack. On December 6, naval intelligence learned the second major formation was moving close to Karachi, in an intel passed regularly by her submarines deployed in the region. To counter this threat, Chief of Naval Staff Vice-Admiral Muzaffar Hassan met with Chief of Air Staff Air Marshal Abdul Rahim Khan in which an airstrike group was formed. Following Operation Python on the evening of 8 December at about 1800 hrs. The Chief of Air Staff of PAF was contacted by direct telephone and asked for the strike from the air. The Chief of Naval Staff of Pakistan Navy also had a word with him to emphasise the urgency.

Operation Python

On the night of December 8, 1971, in rough seas, a small strike group consisting of missile boat INS Vinash and two multipurpose frigates, INS Talwar and INS Trishul, [2] approached Karachi. *INS Vinash* fired four SS-N-2B Styx missiles. The first missile struck the fuel tanks at the Keamari Oil Farm. Another missile hit and sank a Panamian fuel tanker the Gulf Star. The third and fourth missiles hit the Pakistani Navy fleet tanker PNS Dacca and the British ship SS Harmattan, which were badly damaged. [28][3] One Pakistani ship was captured off the Makran coast. [1]

Between Operations Trident and Python, and the Indian Air Force attacks on Karachi's fuel and ammunition depots, more than 50 percent of the total fuel requirement of the Karachi zone was reported to have been blown up. [26][3] The result was a crippling economic blow to Pakistan. The damage was estimated at worth \$3 billion, with most of the oil reserves [4] and ammunition, warehouses and workshops had been destroyed and PAF was also hit. [3]

Python was another successful operation by the Indian Navy. [28] The Pakistani fuel reserves for the sector were destroyed and the flames could be seen even from miles away. [26] India had established complete control over the oil

Operation Python 335

route from the Persian Gulf to Pakistani ports.^{[4][1]} Shipping traffic to and from Karachi, Pakistan's only major port at that time, ceased. The Pakistani Navy's main ships were either destroyed or forced to remain in port. A partial naval blockade was imposed by the Indian Navy on the port of Karachi.^{[23][26][27][]}

Aftermath

The rescue efforts were immediately coordinated by Rear-Admiral Patrick Julian Simpson (later 3-star Vice-Admiral) who kept morale high among the officers. For this, he conferred with Sitara-e-Jurat. Apart from the obsolescence of its weapons, the lack of adequate air support inhibited the success of its operations. The Pakistan Navy's has surface force's human and economic casualties. Due to heavy funding for the Pakistani Army's weapons and production, the neglect of the Navy over several decades came through clearly in the 1971 war.

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External links

- The attack as seen from a "virtual newspaper" from the time [5]
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Operation Trident (1971) 336

Operation Trident (1971)

Operation Trident and its follow-up Operation Python were naval offensive operations launched on Pakistan's port city of Karachi by the Indian Navy during the Indo-Pakistani War of 1971. Operation Trident resulted in the first use of anti-ship missiles in the region, ^[1] as well as the first sinking of naval vessels during hostilities in the region since World War II. ^[2] India celebrates its Navy Day annually on 4 December to mark this operation.

Background

Karachi housed the headquarters of the Pakistani Navy and almost the entire Pakistan Navy fleet was based at Karachi Harbour. Karachi was also the hub of Pakistan's maritime trade, meaning that a blockade would be disastrous for Pakistan's economy. The defence of Karachi harbour was therefore paramount to the Pakistani High Command and it was heavily defended against any air or naval strikes. Karachi received some of the best defence Pakistan had to offer, as well as cover from strike aircraft based at two airfields in the area.

Operation Trident was planned under the leadership of Admiral Sardarilal Mathradas Nanda. The Indian Navy's Vidyut class missile boats, had limited range. So the plan for Operation Trident called for towing the missile boats towards Karachi and including a refuelling tanker in the task force to enable the task force to return back to Indian ports. [3] The *Vidyut class* vessels were each armed with four SS-N-2B *Styx* surface-to-surface missiles with a maximum range of 40 nmi and a firing system linked to long-range MR-331 Rangout radars.

Operation Trident

On 4 December, the Indian Navy launched a fast naval strike on the Pakistan Naval Headquarters (PNHQ) of Karachi. The task group for the operation consisted of three *Vidyut* class missile boats, INS *Nipat* (K86), INS *Nirghat* (K89) and INS *Veer* (K82) from the 25th "Killer" Missile Boat Squadron, escorted by two anti-submarine Arnala class corvettes, INS *Kiltan* (P79) and INS *Katchall* (P81), and a fleet tanker, *INS Poshak*. The task group was led by the Commanding Officer of the 25th Squadron, Commander Babru Bhan Yadav, embarked on INS *Nipat*.

As per the operational plan, the task group reached 250 nautical miles (**unknown operator: u'strong'** km) south of Karachi and stayed in the area during the day, outside the range of Pakistan Air Force (PAF) aircraft. The plan was to attack Karachi at night because most PAF aircraft did not possess night-time bombing capability. ^[5] In the evening on December 4, *INS Kiltan* and the 3 missile boats approached Karachi, evading Pakistani reconnaissance aircraft and surface patrol vessels.

At 2230 hrs PST, the task group converged about 70 nautical miles (**unknown operator: u'strong'** km) south of Karachi detected Pakistani targets, analyzed as warships 45 miles to the northwest and 42 miles to the northeast.

INS Nirghat then steered towards and engaged the northwesterly target and after verification, fired the first SS-N-2B Styx missile at the destroyer, PNS Khaibar, which was on patrol. Khaibar mistook the missile to be an aircraft and engaged it with its Bofors anti-aircraft guns. The missile struck Khaibar on the starboard side and exploded below the aft galley in the Electrician's mess deck at about 2245 hrs PST. The ship immediately lost propulsion, plunged into darkness and the No.1 Boiler room exploded, engulfing the ship in thick black smoke. Khaibar sent out an emergency transmission to PNHQ which read "Enemy aircraft attacked in position 020 FF 20. No 1 Boiler hit. Ship stopped." In the panic of the attack, the transmission sent incorrect coordinates of the ship's position, which resulted in delays in rescuing the survivors later. With the target still afloat, at about 2249 hrs, INS Nirghat fired a second missile, which was seen approaching and again engaged with anti-aircraft guns of Khaibar. The missile struck the No.2 Boiler room on the starboard side, sinking PNS Khaibar. [6]

At 2300 hours, *INS Nipat* engaged two targets to the northeast approaching Karachi. Verifying the targets, *Nipat* launched 1 *Styx* missile each at the MV *Venus Challenger* and her destroyer escort PNS Shah Jahan (DD-962)^{[6][]}.

Operation Trident (1971)

By *Indian claims*^{[7][6][8]} the MV *Venus Challenger* was carrying ammunition for Pakistan from the United States forces in Saigon. The ammunition on the *Venus Challenger* immediately exploded as the missile struck sinking her about 26 miles south of Karachi^[7]. The other missile damaged PNS *Shah Jahan*. ^{[6][]][}

At 2320 hours, the minesweeper PNS *Muhafiz*, was targeted by a *Styx* missile from *INS Veer*. The missile hit *Muhafiz* on the port side abaft the bridge, instantaneously disintegrating the vessel before it could send a transmission to the PNHQ.

INS Nipat continuing towards Karachi, locked on to the Kemari oil storage tanks of the port from 14 nautical miles (**unknown operator: u'strong'** km) south of the harbor. It fired two missiles at the tanks. One of the missiles misfired, while the other hit the fuel tanks, which were burnt and destroyed, causing heavy loss. ^[2] The task force then withdrew back towards Bombay. The operation Trident was also noted for introducing the first ship launched missiles in the region, to the war. ^[2]

Aftermath

Overall, the Indian Navy's missile attack was carefully planned and executed well. The attack achieved complete surprise and was a shock to Pakistan's Armed Forces Command.

A disjointed and haphazard rescue operation was launched to locate and recover survivors of PNS *Khaibar*, while PNHQ was not aware of the sinking of PNS *Muhafiz*. PNHQ learnt of the fate of *Muhafiz* from her survivors who were rescued when a patrol vessel steered towards her burning flotsam while searching for survivors from the *Khaibar*.

Pakistan Airforce retaliated to these attacks by bombing Okha harbour scoring direct hits on fuelling facilities for missile boats, ammunition dump and the missile boats jetty. [9][10] Indians were ready for this and had already moved the missile boats to other locations to prevent any losses^[7]. But the destruction of the special fuel tank prevented any further incursions until Operation Python. [7]

The Pakistan Navy, on high alert as a result of the operation, raised a number of false alarms in the ensuing days about the presence of Indian Navy vessels off Karachi. One such false alarm was raised by a Pakistan Navy Fokker Friendship reconnaissance aircraft on 6 December 1971 which reported a Pakistan Navy frigate as a missile boat by Indian Navy. [4] The PNHQ ordered a Pakistan Air Force (PAF) air strike on the supposed Indian ship. At 0645 hrs, fighter jets were scrambled which strafed the vessel before it was identified as Pakistan Navy's own frigate PNS Zulfiqar, which suffered casualties and damage as a result of this friendly fire. [4]

Operation Trident was considered an enormous success for the Indian Navy with no casualties or damage to the Indian task group, which returned safely back to Indian ports. The success of this operation prompted another successful attack on Karachi on 8 December 1971, known as Operation Python. [4]

Controversy

Indian Air Force sources claim some kills of this operation including the Karachi oil tanks on the remark that Indian Navy's C-in-C at Mumbai, Vice Admiral S.N. Kohli wrongly claimed the fire on the oil tanks as the reports of both incidents were given at the same time. The Indian Navy and Army is accused of wrongly claiming Indian Air Force's similar achievements including the Battle of Longewala.^[11]

Awards

The Indian Navy celebrates its Navy Day on December 4, to mark the operational victory.

A number of Indian Navy personnel were honored with gallantry awards for the operation. Then Fleet Operations Officer and later Vice Admiral Gulab Mohanlal Hiranandani, was awarded the Nausena Medal for the detailed operational planning. [12]

Operation Trident (1971) 338

Maha Vir Chakra

• Commander Babru Bhan Yadav, for planning and leading the task force.

Vir Chakra

- Lieutenant Commander Bahadur Nariman Kavina, commanding officer of INS Nipat^[13]
- Lieutenant Commander Inderjit Sharma, commanding officer of INS Nirghat
- Master Chief M. N. Sangal, INS Nirghat
- · Lieutenant Commander Om Prakash Mehta, commanding officer of INS Veer

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- Youtube video of Op Trident & Python (http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=ZzNCePxoxp4&mode=related&search=)

Battle of Asal Uttar 339

Battle of Asal Uttar

The **Battle of Asal Uttar** (Punjabi and Hindi for *Battle of Definitive Reply* or more appropriately *Fitting Response*) was one of the largest tank battles fought during the Indo-Pakistani War of 1965. It was fought from September 8 through September 10, 1965, when the Pakistan Army thrust its tanks and infantry into Indian territory, capturing the Indian town of Khem Karan 5 km from the International Border. ^[1] The Indian troops retaliated, and after three days of bitter fighting, the battle ended with the Pakistani forces being repulsed near Asal Uttar. Factors that contributed to this were the conditions of the plains, better Indian tactics and a successful strategy. ^[15]

War historians, including Dr. Philip Towle, regard the Indian resistance near Khem Karan as one of the key turning points of the war, one which tilted the balance of the war in favor of India. [2] Peter Wilson states [3] that the defeat of Pakistan Army in the battle of Asal Uttar was one of the greatest defeats suffered by Pakistan forces in the course of Indo-Pak war of 1965. [3]

Battle

Pakistan's invading force, consisting of the 1st Armoured Division and 11th Infantry Division, crossed the International Border and captured the Indian town of Khem Karan. After the seizure, the Indian Army regrouped and launched a counter attack. Indian troops flooded the area, which slowed the advance of the Pakistani tanks down and successfully brought them inside a horse-shoe formation, a trap where the advancing Pakistani troops were ambushed and repelled. 97 Pakistani tanks were either destroyed or captured while the Indians, by their account, lost only 12 tanks during this offensive. [4]

Conclusion

Despite the initial thrust of the Pakistani Army into Indian territory, the battle ended in a decisive Indian victory. ^[3] The commander of Pakistani forces Maj. Gen. Nasir Ahmed Khan himself was fatally hit in the battle. ^[3] However, the failure of Indian troops to regain Khem Karan and further losses in Sailkot led to a strategic stalemate and ultimately caused both parties to call for negotiations. ^[2] According to military historian Steve Zaloga, Pakistan admitted that it lost 165 tanks during the 1965 war, more than half of which were knocked out during the "debacle" of Asal Uttar. ^[4]

Pervez Musharraf, later Army Chief of Staff and President of Pakistan, participated in this battle as a lieutenant of artillery in the 16 (SP) Field Regiment, 1st Armoured Division Artillery. The battle also witnessed the personal bravery of an Indian soldier, Abdul Hamid, who was honoured with the Param Vir Chakra, India's highest military award, for knocking out seven^[5] enemy tanks with a recoilless gun.^[6]

This battle led to the creation of Patton Nagar (or Patton City) at the site of the battle viz., Khemkaran. This is because a large number of Patton tanks fielded by the Pakistani forces were either captured or destroyed at the scene.^[4]

Battle of Asal Uttar 340

Gallery



Brig. Hari Singh Deora, 18th Cavalry (Indian Army) after Indian Army destroyed over Patton and Sherman Tanks of Pakistani Army during the 1965 Indo-Pak War.



Destroyed Pakistani tanks arranged at "Patton Nagar"



The tanks displayed at Khemkaran

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External links

Pictures of the Patton Nagar (http://www.bharat-rakshak.com/LAND-FORCES/Army/Patton2.html)

Battle of Atgram

The **Battle of Atgram Complex**, fought on 21 November 1971 between the 5 Gorkha Rifles of the Indian Army and the 31 Punjabs of the Pakistan Army, was one of the first engagements between the two opposing forces that preceded the formal initiation of hostilities of the Indo-Pakistani War of 1971, and also one of the first large scale assaults launched by the Indian army against East Pakistani forces preluding to the 1971 war.

Site

The battle was fought on the border village Atgram, in the Sylhet District of then East Pakistan, approximately 35 kilometres from the (then)East Pakistani town of Sylhet. The village lay across the Surma River, which served as a de-facto border, separating East Pakistan from the Cachar District of Assam, India.

The target of the Indian operation was the Atgram complex. Situated two kilometres inside the International Border across the River Surma, Atgram served as a major road communication centre at the eastern edge of Sylhet Division of East Pakistan, connecting it with Zakiganj to the south opposite the Indian Border town of Karimganj. The complex itself comprised a Pakistani border outpost on the River Surma, a Masjid close to the outpost and the village of Atgram itself. The site was held by a defending force of the B company of the 31 Punjab Regiment, Pakistan Army, along with additional elements of Mujahids, Thal/Tochi Scouts and the Pakistan Rangers under Major Azhar Alvi, supported by Medium Machine Guns (MMGs), Recoilless Guns (RCLs), Chinese Rocket Launchers and 81 millimetre mortars. Surrounded by low lying marshes, nearly knee deep, Atgram itself lay on a higher ground. The Battalion Headquarter of 31 Punjab was reported to be located at Charkhai with some troops 10 kilometres west of Atgram.

Early operations

The Indian Army's 59 Mountain Brigade led by Brigadier C A Quinn, was tasked to capture Atgram-Zakiganj. Accordingly, 4/5 Gorkha Rifles (Frontier Force) was tasked to capture the Atgram Salient by first light 21 November 1971 and advance further towards Charkhai and secure Sarkar Bazar, which lay approximately 4 kilometres west of the village of Atgram. The 9 Guards of 59 Mountain Brigade were given the task of capturing Zakiganj. The plans for the attack, drawn up by Lieutenant Colonel A B Harolikar, aimed to surpirse the defending Pakistani force by infiltrating, and establishing road blocks to prevent reinforcements from Sarkar Bazar from the west Zakiganj to the south. This meant that to reach the Atgram, the Gorkhas had to cross the River Surma, infiltrating between Pakistani defences of Raigram and Amalsid, proceeding through four kilometres of marshes and launching the assault on Atgram complex from the rear. The force was then to proceed and clear the Border Outposts. The Gorkha C Company and an Adhoc Force, was tasked to set up the road blocks and hold the approaches, while the main attack on Atgram was to be carried out by A and D Companies. To achieve maximum possible surprise, as well as a psychological factor, the main attack was planned with Kukris.

By August 1971, Battalion (Fourth Battalion The Fifth Gorkha Rifles (Frontier Force)) had concentrated at Panchgram {Badarpur- Cachar District; Assam}. It was evident that Battalion will have to soon un-sheath Khukri's. There was furious activity, exchange of fire and forays deep inside the East Pakistan territory by Mukti Bahini fighters. The influx of refugees had reached all time high and everyday there were news of some activity along the border. Reports of possible sabotage by Paki Forces along Silichar / Jaintia Hills {Meghalaya} Border were ripe and my Company {Delta} was moved to general area Ratachara / Natanpur for patrolling, support of Mukti Bahini and instil confidence amongst local population. One fine day {Third week of September 1971} Late Brigadier C A Quinn {Bunty Quinn; our Commander, 59 Mountain Brigade} visited the Company. This was the time Pakistani Guns from Charkhai in Sylhet Sector opened on our positions, to be silenced by a troop of our medium guns. In the coming weeks, due to frequent firing by Pakistani Forces in this area, mostly on Mukhti Bahini fighters, they {Mukti

Bahini} had planned to go inside East Pakistan territory and capture Sarkar Bazar {See sketch below} and area around it. By about 3 PM on the designated day they were in Sarkar Bazar and in jubilation fired in the air and remained there for the night, withdrew and fell back on our firm base. My senior JCO, Subedar Bal Bahadur Thapa, with a platoon, had escorted them, as we had orders not to go beyond the firm base. This general area {Sarkar Bazar} was to become a landmark in our battalion operations in November 1971. In the meantime East Bengal Rifle Units, organised as a brigade {1 EBR Brigade} under Colonel Zia-ul—Rehman {Late General Zia-ul—Rehman, who became Bangladesh Army Chief and later President Of Bangladesh after the assassination of Sheikh Mujib-u- Rehman in a coup on 15 August 1975}. One fine day 1 EBR Brigade moved into the area, with one of its battalions. Colonel Zia too arrived and we had a quite evening together over Mach and Bat {Fish Curry and Rice}. Things had started hotting up; a quiet Dasain {Dussehra} for the Battalion and end October saw the whole battalion again concentrate at Panchgram; fondly called Char-Panch Gram, after our battalion numerical number 4/5 Gorkha Rifles {Frontier Force}, for next session.

Reconnaissance and objectives

By beginning November 1971, we had already done reconnaissance along the borders but by mid November it was area specific, where the brigade was to operate; area opposite Natanpur / Karbala BOP's; Atgram Complex. Atgram Complex, nearly 30 kilometres from East Pakistan's important town of Sylhet, was based on a border village of Atgram, referred to as Umargarh by Pakistanis, two kilometres inside and across River Surma, which also was approximately the border between then East Pakistan and Cachar District of Assam {India}. The complex comprised Amalsid Border Out Post {BOP} based on Inspection Bungalow {IB} on river Surma, Masjid close to this BOP and Atgram Village. Atgram was located on a higher ground than the low lying and nearly knee deep marshy area around it. B Company 31 Punjab Pakistan Army with additional elements of Mujahids, Thal/ Tochi Scouts, Rangers, supported by Medium Machine Guns {MMGs}, Recoilless Guns {RCL's}, Chinese Rocket Launchers and 81 millimetre mortars under Major Azhar Alvi were defending Atgram Complex. All positions except Atgram Bus Stand, where in front and could be observed and had been actively engaging our BOP's with fire and rockets. Atgram being in depth, could not be observed and information about the Paki deployment in this area was scanty. Battalion Headquarter 31 Punjab and some forces was reported to be located at Charkhai, 7 kilometres away. 31 Punjab Pak Army was also holding Zakiganj, south of Atgram, with another company. Paki defences were supported by guns from area around Charkhai; on road Atgram- Charkhai- Sylhet. By 16 November we were told of our areas of interest; Atgram Complex i.e. Amalsid Masjid and Amalsid IB {BOP} and Atgram Bus Stand. 4/5 Gorkha Rifles {Frontier Force} was given the task of capturing Atgram Complex by first light 21 November 1971, secure Sarkar Bazar 3-4 kilometres west of Atgram and advance towards Charkhai, on orders. The best option to capture Atgram Complex was to first capture Atgram and then develop operations towards its front localities. This meant crossing of River Surma, infiltrate in between Pakistani defended locality of Raygram and Amalsid BOP's, traverse four kilometres of marsh and assault Atgram from the rear and then clear the BOP's/ defences in the front. 9 Guards of the brigade {59 Mountain Brigade} was simultaneously tasked to capture Zakiganj. Commanding Officer, Lieutenant Colonel {Later Brigadier} A B Harolikar, MVC formulated the attack plan based on measures to achieve surprise; attack by infiltration, establishment of road blocks at Sarkar Bazar by B Company, 3-4 kilometres west of Atgram and south of Atgram by C Company. The main assault was to be launched by two Company's; Alfa {Late Major Dinesh Rana} and Delta {Major {Later Brigadier} Rattan Kaul}. Khukri, the world famous personal weapon of a Gurkha was to be the principal weapon of decision in this battle of hand to hand fight.

Based on orders, both assaulting Company Commanders allocated objectives and tasking as under, after coordination within themselves:-

Alfa

Simultaneous attack on Amalsid and IB {Inspection Bungalow} from rear with two platoons (Praveen Johri (No 1 Platoon) and Hawa Singh (No 2 Platoon)) with Subedar Ran Bahadur's platoon {No 3 Platoon} as reserve. Attack timings were to be coordinated with Delta and progress of the movement.

Delta

Simultaneous attack from rear along Zakiganj- Atgram Road with two platoons {Yang Bharat {No 10 Platoon} and Subedar Tirtha Bahadur {No 11 Platoon} with Subedar Bal Bahadur Thapa's platoon {No 12 Platoon} as reserve. No 10 Platoon was specifically tasked to capture area of Atgram Road Junction, {No 11 Platoon} Subedar Tirtha Bahadur capture high ground overlooking road junction.

Attack Plan

The countdown began on 17 November 1971. CO gave out attack plan in the Officers Mess at Panchgram, on an enlargement:-

- Concentration into Forward Assembly Area {FAA} Night 19/20 November. FAA two kilometres behind Natanpur BOP, in a jungle area. Move partly by day ex Panchgram and move beyond NH 44 after hours of darkness.
- Attack by infiltration, after establishing secure corridor across Surma River. Movement to riverfront to start after last light 20 November.
- Crossing of Surma River with pneumatic boats under Engineer Regiment, BSF to secure home bank but to be told of task at last minute. C Company {Major later Colonel Maney Malik} secure far bank and establish corridor by 2130 hours 20 November. Kelagram/ Raghur Chak to be masked but no physical assault. Beyond far bank, B Company {Viru Rawat} to move ahead; bypass Raygram, Kamalpur villages, establish Road Block in area Sarkar Bazar, not later than 0300 hours 21 November 1971, act as reserve from the direction of West and CO 2 {Second-in-Command} {late Major Shyam Kelkar} to control the road block operations.
- C Company less a platoon to move behind B Company, establish road block on Atgram Zakiganj Road in area jungle, south of Atgram Road Junction and act as reserve. Platoon {Under Ravindra Singh} for corridor protection, to reel up and move at the tail of the battalion column.
- Major later Colonel Yashwant {Jassi} Rawat with Pioneer Section, Section each of MMG's and Rcl, making adhoc force; to move behind C Company and establish in general area just north of C Company for task to be given later.
- A Company {Late Major Dinesh Rana} to move behind C Company and capture Amalsid BOP and IB {Inspection Bungalow}.
- D Company {Major {later Brigadier} Rattan Kaul} to move behind A Company and capture Atgram Bus Stand to include Atgram High Ground. Attack timings to be synchronised depending upon movement, but appreciated between 0100 and 0300 hours 21 November 1971.
- Battalion R Group to move with C Company up to the corridor and thereafter move with one of the company, as the progress of movement warranted. Strict silence and fire control; avoid known positions, no return fire, while moving to the objectives. Artillery support only during the assault to be coordinated on Radio by CO, Company Commanders, BC and Artillery OP's.

Choice of H Hour. Unlike conventional attack, CO gave a broad band of Hotel hour for the attack was by infiltration; timings depended upon progress of movement through the area. It also depended, to certain extent, time it took to cross Surma River. CO when asked about his Hotel hour at the Divisional Headquarter had given reasoning and in his own words; "Planned to 'close in' {i.e. pounce on the enemy inside their bunker} between 1 AM and 3 AM on the night of 20/21 November 1971, their senses dulled, and reactions and responses slow."

Conduct of Operations

The Battalion crossed River Surma in the earlier part of the night of 20 November 1971. C Company and Commanding Officers Group were first to cross with the help of pneumatic boats, established firm base across the river for battalion to pass through and move in between Pakistani BOP's. The task of C Company involved securing of far bank of the River, establish a firm base and masking Pakistani localities of Amalsid, Kelagram and Raygram. After the establishment of firm base, battalion passed through. C Company, which was to reel up and establish a road block on road Atgram - Zakiganj. B Company {Major {Later Lt Col} VS Rawat and Late Major Kelkar} tasked to establish Road Block at Sarkar Bazar {west of Atgram} crossed after establishment of firm base and corridor. The assault force of A Company {Dinesh Rana}, D Coy {Rattan Kaul} and an Adhoc Force {Major {Later Colonel} Yashwant Rawat} crossed thereafter, in that sequence. Initial progress of move was slow due to firing by Pakistani posts and movement through the marshy stretch. The battalion troops did not retaliate. The assaulting troops {A and D Company} neared the objective in the later part of the night. C Company and Adhoc Force established road block as planned, while B Coy established road block at Sarkar Bazar.

Pak Patrol's 'Order' To Raise Hands

Soon column of assaulting company's crossed a track/road. It was 5 to 7 feet above ground level and we thought we had either crossed Atgram-Raygram/ Bala or Atgram-Zakiganj Road and the objectives were still far off. At this juncture the assaulting column guides {Alfa Company} started steering towards North. Earlier effort to find direction of the objectives with a round of fire was not utilised, to maintain surprise. There was need to go closer towards the objective, as it was felt that we were going away from them. Alfa column, CO's Group had crossed over the road, Delta's 10 Platoon too had crossed. My Group had just crossed and part of 11 Platoon too had crossed, but bulk of this platoon was on the road. By some coincidence Subedar Bal Bahadur bringing up the tail fetched up parallel to this platoon and in whispers was asking me as to how far we were from Atgram. The road remained solidly silhouetted against starry night. Suddenly few men appeared against the skyline, on the road, with a bunker close by. Someone amongst them shouted "Kaun Hai. Hath Khara Karo" {Who is there? Raise your hand}. I felt that this was the position of Atgram; indicators being road, bunker and Paki troops who must have thought that Mukhti's had come. In retaliation few of us, close by, shouted 'Charge Ayo Gorkhali'. Frankly to this day I don't know what made us shout the war cry, at this stage, when indicators were not enough of being next to the objective. I could hear CO shouting 'Parkha, Objective ma pughe Chhaina' {Wait, we are still away from the objective}; The arrow had left the bow and there was no way to recall it and Ayo Gorkhali resonated around the area. This was at about 0430 Hours 21 November 1971, when A and D Company, led by their commanders, with CO in the centre, launched fierce Khukri assault and as the dawn broke captured Atgram. Pakistanis were caught by surprise and met their end with dazzling Khukris. In the battle Major Azhar Alvi tried to kill the CO and others but was killed. After capture of Atgram, A Company secured Chargram, west of Atgram. D Company secured Amalsid Masjid and Amalsid BOP. 31 bodies of Pakistanis including that of Major Azhar Alvi were found and scores of Paki troops reportedly injured. The assault was classical operation of attack by infiltration, silent attack personally led by Commanding Officer {CO}, company commander's, junior leaders and use of Khukri's as the weapon of decision.

Major Azhar Alvi, Company Commander B Company 31 Punjab Pak Army- Fights Back

During the process of reorganisation, I was moving along with CO and we had already seen Company Commander's bunker. As we came out into a bigger room, where our injured and dead were lying, we saw a row of 8 to 10 Paki dead bodies; but none except one with a weapon. The person sturdy and well built was fully and neatly dressed, lying amongst the dead. I am not sure as to whether he was injured or feigning; in no case seriously injured. Sudden movement by this person startled us. Actually we were taking toll of enemy dead and our own casualties. I noticed that the sturdy person posing as dead, was moving his hand on the rifle at his side {Actually it was deadly Chinese Carbine, as I recollect -I came to know later that he was Major Alvi, B Coy Commander, 31 Punjab Pak Army }.He

tried to grapple with CO, as I was trying to shoot him but my sten gun misfired. Subedar Ran Bahadur, who was next to us and seeing my sten not firing, hit him and pumped a burst into Alvi and killing him instantly. Major Alvi lay dead. Major Azhar Alvi of B Company 31 Punjab died a death of a brave soldier. Even when the chips were down, he tried his best to kill command elements of the Battalion. Exemplary bravery, a dignified death in the best tradition of the troops he commanded and for the country he served. Major Azhar Alvi was awarded Hilal-e- Jurat, Pakistan's second highest award for bravery {Equivalent to our MVC} posthumously. He deserved it, for he set an example by doing something spectacular in these circumstances. Later in the day at Atgram, CO had also found a walking stick. In the afternoon situation had stabilised and Commander, Brigadier Bunty Quinn came to Atgram. CO tried to present the walking stick to him, which was declined. But he {Bunty Quinn} while moving around, noticed a Parakeet {Possibly pet bird of late Major Alvi} in a cage, shrieking, forlorn, almost insane and caged in Alvi's room. He whistled to the bird for a while and was successful in quietening him. The bird was handed over to Commander and he gracefully took it. The Parakeet had sensed death of his master and in his hour of grief someone, Bunty Quinn, had come to share it with him and that is how he quietened as Bunty Quinn whistled to him and carried it with him.

Losses

We lost two officers {Captain Johri, Second Lieutenant Hawa Singh; both Platoon Commanders'}, One JCO {MFC}, Two Other Rank's and few injured. It was this Khukri assault which blazed trail of terror amongst the Paki's; B Company 31 Punjab disintegrated and ceased to exist. Rifleman Dil Bahadur Chettri for single handedly killing eight Pakistanis with his Khukri was awarded Maha Vir Chakra {MVC}. Rifleman Phas Bahadur Pun and Second Lieutenant Hawa Singh were awarded Vir Chakra, posthumously, for their exemplary bravery. The Battalion won one Maha Vir Chakra {MVC}, two Vir Chakra's {Vr C's} and two Sena Medal's (SM's; Captain Praveen Johry {Posthumously} and Subedar Tirtha Bahadur) for this action. For his exemplary leadership, command, personal bravery at Atgram, followed by attack at Gazipur, and successful conduct of Indian Army's First Ever Heliborne Operation at Sylhet, resulting in the surrender of two Pakistani Brigades {202 & 313} Commanding Officer Lieutenant Colonel {Later Brigadier} A B Harolikar was awarded Maha Vir Chakra {MVC; Second Highest Bravery Award. This flash of Khukri's created such terror in the minds of Pakistani troops that their company of 22 Baluch buckled at Gazipur, further South, on 4/5 December 1971 and when battalion landed at Sylhet on 7 December 1971, in Indian Army's first ever heliborne operation. It held ground in spite of odds, tied down two Pakistani Brigades {313 and 202}, culminating in negotiation of surrender of Sylhet Garrison to the Battalion (4/5 GR (FF)) on the morning of 15 December 1971 and formal surrender on 16 December 1971; nearly 24 hours earlier than their surrender at Dacca on 16 December evening.

Aftermath

After this assault phase, A Company moved to Sarkar Bazar, to reinforce road block established by B Company under Second-in-Command Late Major Shyam Kelkar. After securing of Amalsid, my Company {D} also moved to Sarkar Bazar and by about mid day built up on the other two Companies B and A}. As I led the company column along the road, we saw a 6 foot tall burly Pathan, in Muzri dress, duly tied with rope, being escorted by two Johnny's; Naik Damar Bahadur Gurung, a boxer of the battalion who was hardly 5 feet tall and Naik Suk Bahadur; both of Bravo Company; with remainder few men walking loosely behind them. It was apparent that the patrol had captured the Paki and were now escorting him to Company Headquarter. A smile appeared on my lips, while men around me giggled. We were approximately 100 yards away from them when I hailed them. Damare, as we called Naik Damar Bahadur Gurung, looked towards me and before I could say Jack Robin, there was a grenade blast. The Pathan seeing his predicament had taken out a grenade from his pouch, took off the pin, kept it next to his body, told Damare and his colleagues to Bago {Run Away} and blew himself up. He was from Tochi Scouts, as his shoulder titles indicated. Tochi's are Pakistan's Northern Area tribal; fiercely proud and brave. This unknown Tochi had stood

by the reputation of his tribe.

In spite of inadequate intelligence and topographical information, we waded through deep marshy area, which was not known, but nobody cared at that time. This is because mind is so deeply and intensely occupied with variety of likely consequences and toying with contingencies thereof that body is immune to external stimuli. That is the state of mind on such occasions. Atgram was classic assault by infiltration, against strong and almost equal opposition, delivered with the skill of a craftsman, who achieves a perfect result, even beyond his expectations. B Company 31 Punjab Pak Army and affiliated troops at Atgram ceased to exist for the rest of the war. And finally the encounter with late Major Azhar Alvi; CO, myself and many others being his close and immediate target. The encounter for Alvi was either "you or me". It would have been catastrophic had Alvi succeeded. This is what Major Mumtaz Hussain Shah also of 31 Punajb Pak Army had to say about the fate of B Company of his battalion at Atgram; "The second prong {sic: 4/5 GR {FF} assault; first prong refers to 9 Guards attack at Zakiganj} on Major Azhar Alvi's B Coy was more lethal... B Coy was mauled completely. Major Alvi and his men laid their lives. Only few stragglers could reach the Battalion Headquarters at Charkhai to tell the tale". Not that troops of B Company 31 Punjab Pak Army were cowards but they had been annihilated by Gorkha's from none other than Fourth Battalion The Fifth Gorkhas {Frontier Force}.

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Battle of Basantar

The **Battle of Basantar** or the Battle of Barapind (December 4 - December 16, 1971) was one of the vital battles fought as part of the Indo-Pakistani War of 1971 in the western sector of India. The Indian troops won a hard fought battle that secured this area in the Punjab/Jammu sector. The name Battle of Basantar actually encompasses the entire gamut of battles and skirmishes fought in the Shakargarh sector.

Location of battle

Basantar river is a tributary of the Ravi River that flows in the states of Punjab and Himachal Pradesh. This battle took place in the Shakargarh Sector or the Shakargarh Bulge that includes Jarpal and surrounding areas. The bulge is a protrusion of Pakistan boundary into Indian territory. It was a strategic area for both sides as it comprised road links to Jammu from Punjab, which could be cut off by Pakistan if it wished to launch an offensive. It was also economically vital for both sides as it straddled the fertile area of the Indus river belt.

Reasoning behind the battle

As the war began on the eastern front, Pakistan decided to open up the western sector to divert Indian troops from the Eastern front in Bangladesh and prolong the war. Shakargarh bulge was a key strategic area for India as it comprised road links between Jammu and Indian Punjab. Therefore, securing the region was crucial for India as Pakistan had a military base nearby in Sialkot and therefore could have easily launched a massive invasion of the Shakargarh region, cutting Jammu and Kashmir from the rest of India. The Indian Army maintained a base at Pathankot, couple of hundred miles away from Shakargarh and quickly mobilized forces to defend the region. In an attempt to gain advantage through the element of surprise, the Indian Army, though outnumbered, attacked Pakistani positions in Jarpal area, triggering the Battle of Basantar.

Battle plan

Both the opposing sides were led by their army's I Corps. Pakistan's I Corp included three infantry divisions, one armoured division, an armoured brigade backed up by an unknown number of artillery and support units. Furthermore Pakistan had the advantage of bringing in the reserve troops stationed nearby. The Reserves totaled 5 divisions, commanded by none other than Lt. General Irshad Hassan Khan, who as DMI (Director Military Intelligence) had failed to act in the 1965 War in spite of intercepting Indian war plans. The Indian I Corps had three infantry divisions, 2 Armoured Brigades, two independent artillery brigades and an engineer brigade. The aim of the Indian Army was to bridge the Basantar river - the entry to which was fully land mined - and take control of the Shakargarh bulge. It was reasoned that such an offensive would also secure the Pathankot army base from any attacks from Pakistan.

The battle

The offensive in this sector was launched a few days after war broke out between the two nations. The Indian I Corps moved into the sector to capture the key areas. The 54 Infantry Division and 16 Armoured Brigade moved towards the area. As they advanced they were met by stiff Pakistani resistance. Meanwhile, the Indian division was bogged down as they had not cleared all the mines or bridged the river. However, in a daring counter-attack by the 17 Poona Horse, 2nd Lieutenant Arun Khetarpal led his 3 tanks headlong into the mined area. A fierce tank battle ensued where a Pakistani tank was taken down. After suffering initial setbacks, the 8th Armoured Brigade of Pakistan was called in to help the Pakistani resistance in the area. However, the Indian Army continued the assault and Lt. Arun Khetarpal with his 2 remaining tanks fought off and gunned down 10 tanks before he was killed in action. Following the defeat in the battle, Pakistan launched a massive counter-attack which was planned into five phases:

- Ph I To capture North Portion f Lalial Res forest and beat back any local counter-attack (2145h on 15 Dec 71)
- Ph II to capture Jarpal and Lohal by 0500h 16 dec 71.
- Ph III To Est Bridge H incl area North of Lalial Forest, Jarpal and Lohal on Ni 15/16 Dec 71.
- · Ph IV To to Break out

After days of intense fighting that saw both sides gaining and losing territory, the battle was turning into a stalemate. However, despite being at a quantitative and qualitative disadvantage, Indian troops made massive gains during the final days of the battle and also repelled the Pakistani thrust. Towards the tail end of the battle, Pakistan Army's Lieutenant Colonel Akram Raja made a frantic attempt to counter-attack the Indian stronghold near Shakargarh by jumping into an old-style cavalry charge with his tanks. Launched in broad daylight in view of the Indian defensive positions which were well secured, the campaign was a disaster. The Indians continued their military thrust deep inside Pakistan and came threateningly close to the Pakistan Army base at Sialkot. Because of being outnumbered by the advancing Indian Army, the Pakistan Army called-in the Pakistan Air Force to repel the Indian attack on the base. Expecting another massive assault by the Indian Army, this time backed by Indian Air Force-support, and in no position to launch any counter-offensive operations in the region, Pakistan offered unconditional surrender which led to ceasefire. India had gained control of more than thousand square miles before finally settling down to 350 sq mi (unknown operator: u'strong' km²) - 1000 km²^[1] of Pakistan territory that included approximately 500 villages.

9 Engineer Regiment at Battle of Basantar

Pakistani tanks destroyed by Indian tanks inducted into enemy territory through a safe passage created by the Sappers of 9 Engineer Regiment.

The 9 Engineer Regiment, which comprised South Indian troops affectionately called 'Thambis' (meaning 'Little brother' in tamil), was placed under the command of 54 Infantry Division. The regiment comprised three field companies, namely 404, 405 and 406, which were individually allotted to each of the three Infantry Brigades of 54 Infantry Division. At the commencement of the 1971 Indo-Pak war, 9 Engineer Regiment was to assist its sister battalion, 5 Engineer Regiment, in support of its offensive in the Samba-Zafarwal sector. The advance was through a seemingly impassable terrain, fortified at a number of places by Pakistan forces which had also laid extensive minefields all along likely approach routes of ingress.

On December 5, 1971, at about 7.30 pm, 2/Lt NP Singh of 9 Engineer Regiment left with his task force for Dera Post from where they started laying an operational track for the Indian offensive. At about 9.30 pm, the leading task force entered Pakistani territory. The Regiment's Commanding Officer, Lt Col BT Pandit, after briefly supervising this specialised task, proceeded ahead in order to guide his men. He came out very successfully in this delicate task. He was later awarded with the coveted Vir Chakra.

On December 6, at about 2.30 pm, the track was completed up to Badala-Gujran in Pakistan. On December 7, for breaching the minefield in area Thakurdwara, 404 Field Company of 9 Engineer Regiment was placed under the command of 47 Infantry Brigade from 8 pm onwards. Nearby, the other field company of 9 Engineer Regiment - 405 Field Company-in conjunction with trawls, breached a vehicle safe lane, five metre-wide and 500 metre-long, in one hour. Thereafter, a field company of 5 Engineer Regiment and a platoon of 404 Field Company widened this lane by one metre.

The Sappers laying an operational track

On December 8, 404 Field Company, on completing its task with 47 Infantry Brigade, was earmarked for providing engineer support to 91 Infantry Brigade. Simultaneously, 405 Field Company rendered engineering support for the advance of 16 (Independent) Armoured Brigade in the area south and south-west of Bari. Meanwhile, 406 Field Company extended the operational track beyond Tarakwal. On December 9, 404 Field Company was earmarked for 76 Infantry Brigade. The operational track was then connected to Bari following which the maintenance of the entire length of track continued.

On the night of December 10/11, a platoon of 405 Field Company, deployed with 16 (Independent) Armoured Brigade and commanded by Nb Sub Doraiswamy, was employed on minefield breaching task with trawls. At about 11pm, the build-up of armour into the bridgehead was seriously hampered as one of the damaged Indian tanks obstructed traffic through the lane. Reopening of the lane was of utmost importance in order to successfully ensure the defence of the bridgehead, which would have otherwise been seriously jeopardised.

Nb Sub Doraiswamy, on his own initiative, took a small party forward through the Pakistani artillery barrage and succeeded in hand-breaching a detour round the stalled tank ensuring speedy induction of Indian armour and essential infantry support weapons through the minefield and into the bridgehead. For displaying this exemplary courage he was honoured with Vir Chakra.

On December 11, a diversion on Road Mawa-Pangdaur was constructed for the free movement of vehicles. Three reconnaissance patrols of 404 Field Company advanced with 91 Infantry Brigade to three different points for minefield reconnaissance. A second minefield lane was lined with the operational track on December 12. Simultaneoulsy, 405 Field Company also cleared a minefield lane for the Armoured Brigade and, on December 13 night, it breached an enemy minefield with trawls 1,300 metre-deep, north of Lohara and further extended it up to Lohara.

On December 15, an Engineer Task Force comprising elements of 404, 405 and 406 Field Companies was grouped with 47 Infantry Brigade for crossing Basantar in Lagwal area. The task involved extension of the operational track from Lohara to Lagwal, breaching of an enemy minefield at Basantar, improvement of crossing places in the riverbed and construction of crossing places on two boggy nullahs which were subsidiary obstacles.

The work commenced at 8 pm on December 15 and was carried out under intense Pakistani small arms, tanks and artillery fire. The Task Force, under Maj VR Choudhary, was deployed for breaching minefield and constructing a passage for tanks and other vehicles through the river Basantar in Lagwal area. On reaching the obstacle at about 8.30 pm, the Task Force found the situation very confusing on account of intense shelling and small arms fire which was further aggravated because of scanty information about the obstacle itself. As conventional reconnaissance would have taken considerable time, the Task Force Commander decided to disregard normal drills and safety precautions and to send a small party on a wide frontage at normal walking speed.

Sensing the urgency of the situation, Capt Revinder Nath Gupta volunteered for this hazardous task and led a small party of junior commissioned officer and two other ranks right up to the far edge of the minefield. Despite the grave risk involved and very intense enemy fire, he and his party brought back vital data by 9.30 pm which enabled the task to be successfully completed by 2.30 pm on December 16.

This enabled 17 Horse with two companies to be inducted into the bridgehead by 3 pm, well in time to take on the enemy's counter-attacks and eventually led to the destruction of his armoured formation west of river Basantar. Subsequently, when the enemy put up in a counter-attack, Capt Gupta personally guided tanks of 17 Horse through the cleared minefield lane for which marking was still in progress. While working on improving the crossing, he was among those killed on December 17 by enemy artillery fire which also claimed the lives of Majors VR Choudhary and SS Malik, 2/Lt KM Mandanna, two junior commissioned officers and two other ranks. Maj SP Sharma and 12 other ranks were also wounded in the shelling. For their exemplary bravery, Maj VR Choudhary and Capt Ravinder Nath Gupta were posthumously decorated with Maha Vir Chakra and Vir Chakra respectively.

Operations ceased at 8 pm on December 17. The War Diary of the regiment records: "After overcoming the initial shock of the death of our gallant officers and junior commissioned officers, the Thambis'morale is high and we are prepared to breach more Basantars."

For their heroic exploits, the 9 Engineer Regiment was bestowed the Battle Honor "Basantar" and Theatre Honor "Punjab" and is proudly called "Basantar Regiment or Basantar R" the companies called Barkhania, Chakra, Thakurdwara and Lohra.

Conclusion

Invading Shakargarh bulge was one of the most crucial components of Pakistan's war strategy in the western sector. Pakistan hoped that by occupying the bulge, the main link between Indian Army positions in Kashmir and Pathankot would be cut-off, following which, it could easily invade Jammu and Kashmir. Pakistani military forces stationed in Sialkot base would keep Pathankot at bay, thwarting any Indian attempts to recapture Shakargarh. However, Pakistan's battle plans were jeopardized because of the ingenuity of a bold attack by the Indians. The Indian Army attacked Pakistani positions in the region within four days of the declaration of the state of war, catching the Pakistanis by complete surprise. After a few days of intense fighting, the Indians had not only pushed the Pakistanis back, but had also come close to capturing Sialkot.

Pakistan Army generally regards this as their most humbling defeat, next only to the Battle of Longewala despite some numerical and qualitative superiority over the opposing force. Apart from Battle of Chawinda were Pakistan defended against Indian onslaughts despite being outnumbered, the entire military campaign in the region was not successful for Pakistan. In this battle alone, India had destroyed close to 70 tanks losing only a few in the process. Pakistan's Hamoodur Rahman Commission recommended that the Commander 1 Corps, who "surrendered to the enemy without a fight" should "be tried for criminal and wilful neglect of duty" and poor conduct of operations, that "seriously jeopardized the Army offensive in the south. [2] The Indian Army, on the other hand, was criticized for

their somewhat timid handling of the attack on Sialkot. The army, however, in its defense stated that it was planning another assault on Sialkot with assistance from the Indian Air Force, when the cease-fire was declared.

This and other battles put paid to any hopes of bargaining for territory lost in East Pakistan, by capturing Indian territory; in fact Pakistan had lost sizeable portions of land on both sides of the border.

Awards

- · Param Vir Chakra, India's highest military honour was awarded to Lieutenant Arun Khetarpal, 17th Poona Horse
- Param Vir Chakra for Major Hoshiar Singh, 3rd Battalion, Bombay Grenadiers
- Unusually, Colonel Mohammed Akram Raja was awarded Hilal-i-Jurat by the Pakistan Government on the basis of a citation written by Lieutenant Colonel, Ved Airy, who was Commanding Officer, 3 Grenadiers, Indian Army
- Mahavir Chakra, India's third highest military honour was awarded to Major Vijay Rattan Chaudhary MVC, Madras Engineer Group Posthumously.
- Vir Chakra, India's Fifth highest military honour was awarded to Lieutenant Colonel B.T.Pandit, Madras Engineer Group
- Vir Chakra, was awarded to Captain R.N Gupta, Madras Engineer Group Posthumously.
- Vir Chakra, was awarded to Naib Subedar Doraiswamy, Madras Engineer Group.

Notes

- [1] The India-Pakistan War of 1971: A Modern War (http://www.globalsecurity.org/military/library/report/1984/KRG.htm)
- [2] The Hamoodur-Rehman Commission Report (http://www.ppp.org.pk/dfc/H_Commission Report.html) Hosted by Pakistan Peoples Party

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Battle of Boyra 351

Battle of Boyra

The Battle of Boyra, on 22 November 1971, was the first engagement between the Air Forces of India and Pakistan of the Bangladesh Liberation War in 1971. It is seen as a culmination of the Battle of Garibpur where the Indian Air Force successfully engaged and destroyed strike elements of the Pakistan Air Force.

The battle

The battle took place between a four ship formation of the No. 22 squadron of the Indian Air Force equipped with HAL built Gnats, against a four ship formation of Canadair Sabres of the PAF No. 14 Squadron.

No. 22 squadron, based in Kalaikunda AFB, was tasked with the air defence of Calcutta sector. The Squadron was formed in October 1966 at Bareilly and had been equipped with the HAL built Ajeets immediately. It was part of 5 Wing at Kalaikunda from September 1968 onwards. The unit started operating a detachment under the command of Wing Commander BS Sikand from the Dum Dum airfield in Calcutta which was activated from 22 September 1971.

Sikand had been taken as a prisoner of war in Pakistan in the 1965 War under curious circumstances after landing in an abandoned airfield in Pasrur in Pakistan. PAF claim he surrendered to Flight Lt. Hakimullah from the No. 9 Squadron flying in his F-104 Starfighter. However, Sikand himself claimed that he had landed in the airfield believing it to be an Indian airfield. This is half corroborated by the semi-official website^[1] which was set up by the [then] serving Air Commodore Kaiser Tufail. Tufail writes that Hakimullah had not seen the Gnat so cannot claim to have 'forced' the surrender. He does however speculate that even though the F-104s may not have seen the Gnat, the Gnat pilot may have seen the F-104s.

The Indian air force later would award Sikand the AVSM, which may indicate that they were more prepared to believe Sikand's version over PAF's. Sikand's aircraft was seen on the radar scope at 230 Signals Unit, Amritsar, commanded by Wing Commander K. Dandapani AVSM (retd.) as veering off-course and losing altitude well before others in his formation reached Sargodha and put down at Pasrur. Sikand landed a fully fueled, armed and untouched Folland Gnat at Pasrur which to this day is on display at a PAF museum.

Background to the ground battle

The initial skirmishes grew progressively bloody and on 21 November a group of Mukti Bahini assisted by Indian Army elements established a foothold in the Boyra Peninsula in what was then East Pakistan. This turned into full scale battle Battle of Garibpur when the Pakistani army brought a squadron of M24 Chaffee tanks into the battle. These were promptly taken on by a Squadron of PT-76 Tanks from the 45 Cavalry regiment. In the ensuing battle, 13 of the Pakistani tanks were destroyed or incapacitated by the Indian forces which lost four of its own tanks damaged or destroyed, but had been able to draw the battle into its second day.

Facing a reversal on the ground, the Pakistani Army commander called for air support. This only materialised on the second day of the battle.

The first intrusion of four Sabres were picked up in the Jessore area on Indian radar at 0811 hours. These were the Canadair Sabres operated by No. 14 PAF squadron and were more powerful version of the Canadian built Sabre powered by the Orenda engine. It has been alleged by later historians that these were smuggled into Pakistan through a clandestine deal organised between Germany and Iran., *Online journal of the Pakistan Institute for Air Defence Studies*. Accessed on 13 August 2006.</ref>[2] No.22 Squadron scrambled four Gnats from Dum Dum. However the Sabres had flown back to their territory by the time the Gnats could make it to Boyra.

A second raid by the Pakistanis followed at 1028 hours. An interception could not be carried out in time and the Sabres went off unscathed. A third strike was carried out in the afternoon on the Indian Army and Mitrobaihini positions at **Chowgachha Mor**. This time, however, luck had run out.

Battle of Boyra 352

In late November 2 PAF Sabres strafing Indian troops were downed by Ajeets, marking the first air combat between the two sides since 1965. ^[3]

The pick-up

At around 1448 hours, the radar picked up the four Sabres as they pulled up in a north westerly direction to about 2000 ft (**unknown operator: u'strong'** m) above ground level. Within a minute, the ORP at Dum Dum was scrambled. Four Gnats took off by 1451 hours led by the formation leader Flt Lt Roy Andrew Massey. It was less than three minutes from the time the Sabres were detected by the radar.

The Fighter controller in the sector was Fg Offr KB Bagchi. His voice went over the radio "One O'Clock, 10 Nautical Miles". Massey Replied "Contact, I can see them pull up". The Sabres seemed to have already carried out several passes in the eight minutes it took the Gnats to reach the Boyra Sailent. The Sabres were commencing to start another dive - they were at about 1800 feet (**unknown operator: u'strong'** m) altitude and diving down to 500' in an attack run.

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"Right wing over attack". shouted Bagchi, "half twelve, thousand yards".
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"Contact" replied Massey.

"Request type", was Bagchi's query.

"Sabres"

"Shoot" was the command from the Fighter Controller.

It was 1459 hours.

Aerial engagement

The four Gnats separated into two sections and dived into the attack to bounce the Sabres. The first section of Gnats was of Massey and Fg Offr SF Soarez as his No.2. The second section consisted of Flt Lt MA Ganapathy and Fg Offr D Lazarus. As the Gnats dived in, a section of two Sabres pulled out of the attack and placed themselves in an awkward position, just in front of Ganapathy and Lazarus. Ganapathy called out on the R/T "Murder Murder Murder". Both the pilots did not waste time on this perfect opportunity. Cannon shells slammed into the pair of Sabres and both the Sabres were badly damaged. The Pakistani pilots Parvez Mehdi Qureshi and Khaleel Ahmed had only one option- to eject. They drifted down to Boyra by parachute. The wreckage of the abandoned Sabres fell near the village of Bongaon. Massey, in the meantime, pulled up over Ganapathy and Lazarus to latch onto another Sabre. The Sabre pilot, Wg. Cdr Chaudhury- in a skillful dogfighting move- broke into Massey's attack forcing him to take a high angle-off burst. He missed his target. Taking aim, Massey let off another burst at 700 yards (unknown operator: u'strong' m) and hit him in the port wing. By that time, Massey's starboard cannon had stopped firing, but the Sabre streaked back into Pakistani territory billowing smoke and fire. Massey himself realised that he was well over East Pakistani airspace in his chase. He turned around and regrouped with the rest of his formation. Later reports confirmed that Massey's victim, Wg. Cdr Chaudhury, showing considerable courage, had managed to fly his badly damaged Sabre back to Tezgaon Airfield just outside Dhaka. Chaudhury himself claimed to have shot down one of the Gnats.

Battle of Boyra 353

Aftermath

• The Indian pilots were each awarded the Vir Chakra. The Fighter Controller Fg Offr KB Bagchi was awarded Vayu Sena Medal. Wg. Cdr. Sikand was awarded the Ati Vishisht Seva Medal (AVSM).

- Massey would later command No. 224 Squadron of the IAF which operated MiG-23MF.
- Donald Lazarus went on to become a Flight commander on No. 102 Squadron of the IAF- The Trisonics- which
 operated India's top secret Mig-25s.
- Parvez Qureshi would later go on to be the CAS of PAF.
- Some dubious reports and analysis later suggest that the Pakistani Pilots were under orders not to fire back.
 However, what is beyond doubt is that at least Qureshi and Ahmed would not have had the opportunity to do so had the orders been given.
- Tezgaon airfield was subjected to a nihilistic offensive campaign by the Indian Airforce and was rendered inoperable by the third day after the formal declaration of war on 3 December 1971.
- PAF No.14 Squadron defied orders to destroy their aircraft at the time of surrender on 14 December. These were captured by the Indian Army Mitrobahini and donated to the nascent Bangladesh Air Force.

Notes and references

- [1] http://www.pafcombat.com PAF Combat
- [2] Cooper T, with Khan Syed Shaiz Ali. Air Combat Information Group. Indian-Subcontinent Database India Pakistan War, 1971; Introduction. 29 October 2003. Lacking numbers to match Indian numerical superiority, the residue F-86s were complemented by 90 Canadair F.Mk.6 Sabres. These were bought in 1967, by Iran via a Swiss intermediary from Germany, without a US end-user certificate (but possibly with the knowledge of the U.S. government).

The reported price of the total package was \$10 million. Upon their arrival in Iran, the Imperial Iranian Air Force—which operated only a handful of US-supplied F-86s at the time—claimed they were unable to maintain and to overhaul them. As a result, all the German Sabres were sent to Pakistan and they never came back. Instead, they were integrated into three PAF units, and by 3 December 1971 at least 88 remained intact, of which 74 were operational. A total of 48 of these were wired for Sidewinders: the PAF thus had a fleet of exactly 72 72 Sidewinder-compatible F-86F/Sabre F.Mk.6s. http://www.acig.org/artman/publish/article_326.shtml URL Accessed on 13 August 06

[3] The Encyclopedia of 20th Century Air Warfare Edited by Chris Bishop (amber publishing 1997, republished 2004 pages 384-387 ISBN 1-904687-26-1)

External links

Bharat Rakshak Indian Air Force 1971 War Section (http://www.bharat-rakshak.com/IAF/History/1971War)

Battle of Chamb

Battle of Chamb

Battle of Dhalai

The **Battle of Dhalai** was a battle in the Bangladesh Liberation War. It was an Indian attack from Tripura into East Pakistan to stop Pakistani cross-border shelling.

It ended in a major Indian victory.

Battle of Kushtia

The battle of Kushtia can mean two incidents, both in what is now Bangladesh:-

- A battle on 19 April 1971 between East Bengali rebels and Pakistani forces. See http://www.time.com/time/archive/printout/0,23657,905021,00.html.
- An Indian attack from West Bengal into East Pakistan in the Bangladesh Liberation War. See http://www.bharat-rakshak.com/1971/Dec09/Art03.htm

Capture of Kishangarh Fort

The **capture of the Kishangarh** in Rajasthan State India took place during the 1965 War between India and Pakistan. Its capture was one of the most important actions of the Desert Theater in that war and one of the finest examples of the use of local militia in the history of the Sub-Continent.

Background

The outpost is around 11 kilometers (Lat 27.871 N,Lon 70.563 E) inside Indian territory, in the so called Jaisalmer Bulge. It is a small mud Structure 70 by 60 meters across. It sits 22 km east of the town of Tanot towards the International border. It also sits on the only road linking any part of Rajasthan with the Pakistani city of Rahim Yar Khan.

The Desert Sector was a mere sideshow in the 1965 Indo-Pakistan War. Both sides had little experience in desert fighting at the time, and moreover the main industrial, and economic heartland of Pakistan and India were to the north. As a result when war came the Indians main effort would be against Lahore and Sialkot in the Punjab. However the Indians left some forces in the region with the aim of launching local offensives. Pakistani army troops in the region were already very stretched, having to defend a sector nearly a thousand km in length. To counteract this effort, the commander Pakistan Army Rangers asked the local people for help.

The Hurs

The Hurs were and are the main tribe living in this area. A proud and fierce people, the Hurs had given the British a difficult time. They had rebelled during World War II against British rule [1]. At the time of the 1965 War the spiritual leader of the Hur was the Pir Pagaro.

The Hurs had earlier not joined the Pakistan Army in any numbers, however with the coming of war, thousands volunteered to fight against the Indians. The Hurs were (due to constraints of finances as well as time) given only basic training and armed with light weapons such as machine guns and assault rifles. The militia was placed under the Pakistani military and para-military forces operating in the sector (known collectively as the "Desert Force"). The Hur militia was commanded by the Faqir Jamal Mangrio.

The battle

The war began on 6 September 1965 and the hostilities in this sector commenced on September the 8th. Initially the Desert Force and the Hur was placed in a defensive role, a role for which they were well suited as it turned out. The Hur were familiar with the terrain and the local area and possessed many essential desert survival skills which their opponents (and indeed their comrades in the Pakistan Army) did not. Fighting as mainly light infantry, the Hur inflicted many casualties on the Indian forces as they entered Sindh. The Hurs were also employed as skirmishers, harassing the Indians LOC, a task they often undertook on camels. As the battle wore on the Hurs and the Desert Force were increasingly used to attack and capture Indian villages inside Rajasthan. It was in this vein that an assault on Kishangarh fort was launched. The attack surprised the Indians and the fort was captured after several days of bitter fighting.

Pakistani Troops at Fort Kishangarh ^[2]
Pakistan Army Officers in front of Fort Kishangarh ^[3]
Artist's depiction of the Pakistani Victory ^[4]

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Battle of Garibpur 356

Battle of Garibpur

The **Battle of Garibpur** fought on 20–21 November 1971 was one of the first engagements of between Indian and Pakistani troops during the Bangladesh Liberation War prior to the initiation of hostilities on 3 December 1971. An intimately entangled part of this battle is the air battle over the Boyra Salient, the actual **Battle of Boyra** where the Indian Air Force successfully engaged and destroyed strike elements of the Pakistan Air Force. The battle took place prior to the start of hostilities in the western front of India (known as Indo-Pakistani War of 1971). Indian troops partly aided by Mukti Bahini (Bengali guerrillas) defeated Pakistan Army in the battle thus capturing key areas and severely denting Pakistani morale.

Background

After months of internal tensions in East Pakistan (current day Bangladesh) and a clampdown on Bengali nationalists, many independence fighters had organised themselves into a guerilla army. Called the Mukti Bahini, these rebels were aided by India in their struggle. After initial success over Pakistani troops there had been some relative calm in the region and further Indian assistance was sought to turn the tide. India thus started to involve itself deeper into the conflict brewing in the east and stationed its troops near the border.

The Boyra salient located inside the North West part of East Pakistan consisting of Garibpur village was at an important crossroads for both nations. Its control was thus vital as it included a highway to Jessore from India.

The battle

On 21 November, the 14 Punjab Battalion - supported by a squadron of 14 PT-76 tanks from 45 Cavalry moved in to capture the areas around Garibpur inside Pakistani territory. The move was supposed to be a surprise, but following a skirmish with patrol troops of both armies the previous day, Pakistan was alerted to this impending attack. Pakistan immediately responded in numbers when its 107 Infantry Brigade - supported by 3rd Independent Armoured Squadron, equipped with M24 Chaffee light tanks was launched. Possessing numerical superiority, Pakistan troops were in position to decimate the Indian intrusion. But the Punjab Battalion, known for its long history of valor, dug in and poised themselves for a counter attack. Retaining the Infantry and the Recoilless rifles in a defensive position, the tanks were sent forward to ambush the oncoming Pakistani charge. In the next couple of hours Indian troops pounded the Pakistani attack who couldn't pinpoint the source of attacks due to poor visibility on account of fog. Undeterred, Pakistan tanks and infantry were thrown into an offensive against Indian defensive positions. But once again these were repulsed by the Indians and resulted in heavy casualties for Pakistan. By noon more than 11 tanks lay smouldering with a further 3 captured in working condition whilst losing six of the PT-76 tanks. The 107 Brigade too had been severely battered with most of its original strength depleted while Indians reported casualties of 40.

But the final chapter of the battle was yet to be written. Pakistan Army had called for help from the Pakistan Air Force which soon responded with attacks on Indian positions. At around 3:00 p.m. three F-86 Sabres of the PAF flew in to provide close air support and hit the Indian positions using machine guns and rocket fire. The Indian Air Force however was prepared for such an attack and was thrust to neutralise the threat from the skies. Flying in their Gnats the four pilots were soon engaged in a dog fight against their Pakistani counterparts. In the first engagement of the two air powers in six years, all the three Sabres were downed in minutes. Two of the pilots ejected safely but were captured by the Mukti Bahini and taken to India as POWs.

Battle of Garibpur 357

Aftermath

The battle coming just weeks before the official start of the war had an unexpected turn of events. Even the allied forces comprising Mukti Bahini and the Indian Army had only dreamt of such a victory given the overwhelming odds they were up against in this battle. A single battalion had been able to destroy an entire brigade supported by an air force and artillery. This and victories in other battles nearby like Battle of Hilli ensured that the Northern sector of East Pakistan was virtually in the hands of Mitro Bahini (Allied forces) before the war was declared. The morale of the Pakistanis dipped and following the mass defections of Bengalis, it was only a matter of time before they would face ultimate defeat

Interestingly one of the captured PAF pilots, Parvez Mehdi Qureshi later on became the Chief of Air Staff of the Pakistan Air Force.

Sources

- Official War History of 1971 ^[1], History Division, Ministry of Defence, Government of India, published at Bharat Rakshak.
- Report ^[2] by the Hamoodur Rahman Commission, Pakistan
- India Pakistan War, 1971; Introduction ^[3], by Tom Cooper, with Khan Syed Shaiz Ali, 23 October 2003, Air Combat Information Group (ACIG)

External links

• Bharat Rakshak with photos [4]

Battle of Gazipur

The **Battle of Gazipur** was a battle that took place between the advancing Indian Army and the defending 22 Baluch Regiment of the Pakistan Army between 4th and 5 December 1971 in the opening stages of the eastern campaign of the Indo-Pakistani War of 1971. The site of the battle was the Gazipur Tea estate near Kalaura, Sylhet District of what was then East Pakistan. ^[1]This battle was a prelude to the Battle of Sylhet. ^[1]

4/5 December 1971

By 27 November 1971 evening 4/5 Gurkha Rifles (Frontier Force) had fortified themselves at Kadamtal, a place closer to the border opposite the Kalaura/Maulvi Bazar Sector of the Sylhet Division of East Pakistan. Small-scale attacks were to be employed to capture territory. The 59th Mountain Brigade was to operate, as part of the 8th Mountain Division plan, in tandem, possibly for thrust to Sylhet. The area had rolling hills with tea gardens dotting the area along the border. Further west, inside East Pakistan, low hills obscured any observations beyond them, had provided an excellent defensive and observation point into the Indian side of the border. The hills tapered just East of Kalaura and the plains of the Sylhet division started from here. Kalaura was a communications centre and rail head ten kilometres in depth, was connected to Maulvi Bazar; along the axis Dharmanagar - Gazipur - Maulvi Bazar - Sylhet.

Battle of Gazipur 358

Objectives

The task given to the 8 Mountain Division was at this stage was:-

• Capture of the border posts along axes Dharmanagar - Gazipur-Kalaura, Dharmanagar - Juri by the 59th Mountain Brigade. The 81st Mountain Brigade was to operate along the Shamshernagar - Fenchuganj - Maulvi Bazar axis.

• Capture of Sylhet by multi-pronged attacks by the division.

Pakistan's 313rd Infantry Brigade, part of Pakistan's 14th Infantry Division, was located at Maulvi Bazar. Its 202 Infantry Brigade had moved to Sylhet, while its third brigade was covering Bhairab Bazar and the Ashuganj area further south. The 22 Baluch was defending the area ear Sagarnal, Gazipur, Kalaura, and Juri with additional company each of Scouts and EPCAF. One of this battalion's companies was deployed along the Dharmanagar-Juri axis with couple of border posts. Border Out Post of a platoon plus strength of regular troops and EPCAF at Sagarnal, a company at Gazipur with about a platoon each of Scouts and EPCAF, battalion headquarter at Kalaura and remainder troops at Maulvi Bazar. Thing not known at that time was that 22 Baluch had additional Reconnaissance and Support elements which had tremendously augmented firepower of their defences.

Indian 59 Mountain Brigade Plan envisaged capture of Sagarnal Border Out Post by 4/5 Gorkha Rifles {Frontier Force} as preliminary operations. The 9th Guards were to capture Juri, and the 6th Rajput was to capture Gazipur and advance up to Kalaura. 4/5 Gorkha Rifles {Frontier Force} as reserve for 6 Rajput operation and further task to be given as the battle progressed. It was planned that once Kalaura was secured, operations of both brigades of the division will be coordinated.

The attack

At Gazipur, Dharmanagar - Kadamtal - Sagarnal - Gazipur - Kalaura road passed through the area dominated by Gazipur Tea Factory Manager's Bungalow and heights to the Southeast. The row of tea plantation created a maze and these alleys were covered by automatic fire. To its North was high ground with good observation of the area, bunkers around it and characterized by Banana Plantation and called Kela-Ka-Bagicha. On 3 December 1971 around 2100 hours, 6 Rajput attacked Gazipur but met with stiff resistance. An odd hour before first light it was apparent that the attack had failed and it was too late to employ reserves.

At this stage 4/5 Gorkha Rifles {Frontier Force} was warned for task for the capture of Gazipur next night; 4/5 December 1971. Day of 4th was utilized for reconnaissance. With the attack launched the previous night, the Pakistanis were sensitive in the area, and had reorganized their defences to prepare for any an attack from any direction. They were supported by artillery guns. The appreciated deployment of Pakistan's 22 Baluch Company plus at Gazipur was; Kela-Ka-Bagicha; Platoon with section of Scouts; Manager's Bungalow, Platoon with section Scouts and MMG's; Factory, Company Headquarter with a platoon, Scouts and Reconnaissance and Support elements. The Pakistani defences were based on built up area and well prepared bunkers. 4/5 Gorkha Rifles {Frontier Force}planned capture of localities in phases; Kela-Ka-Bagicha by Delta Company; Manager's Bungalow by Alfa Company; Factory by Bravo and Charlie Company; CO 2 {Shyam Kelkar} was made overall commander of Factory assault by B and C Company.

Delta Company led the move to the objective. By about 2030 hours the advancing column reached the height immediately North of Kela-Ka-Bagicha and Pakistanis opened up with artillery, MMG and LMG's. It was almost simultaneously that the company charged at about 2045 hours. Apparently Pakistanis had got wind of the attack at the last minute and their reaction was violent. During the hand to hand fighting casualties occurred. Delta did its bit, captured Kela-ka-Bagicha. However, Company commander was injured during the attack. The next objective Manager's Bungalow had literary been turned into a fortress with bunkers strewn around the area. The firing was on fixed lines, covering available gaps in the tea plantation rows and the approach from Kela-Ka-Bagicha. Because of loss of radio contact Alfa Company progress was not known and as such Bravo Company was tasked to capture Manager's Bungalow. Alfa Company didn't know about Bravo Company being employed in its place from the

Battle of Gazipur 359

planned direction. Luckily Alfa's had taken a slight detour and angled with thrust on the rear side while Bravo targeted it from Kela-Ka-Bagicha side. Casualties were suffered which included Coy Commander of Bravo Company but not before Manager's Bungalow had been captured. There, however, was one outstation silent; that of CO 2 {Major Shyam Kelkar}. Well along the direction and path of attack CO 2 {Major Shyam Kelkar} had led the attack, was struck with a bullet and had died on the spot.

The last and decisive phase of attack on the Tea Factory can best be narrated in the words of the Commanding Officer {Late Brigadier A B Harolikar, MVC}:

At this stage I found myself along with my Reconnaissance Group between Manager's Bungalow and the Factory Gate. The Factory gate was hardly 100 metres in front of me. But an MMG had covered this gate effectively by fire. I noticed a Group of 5-6 jawans {Soldiers} in front of me and some jawans{Soldiers} behind me. We had all automatically taken cover in a longish {but narrow in width, like a drain} nullah, which seemed to be dry and shallow. But its shallow was adequate to protect us from flying splinters of bursting artillery shells and whizzing small arms fire...... Only Charlie Company under its company commander had so far not been committed by me in an assault. But I was not aware of what casualties it may have suffered in the relentless artillery pounding and the MMG firing continuously.Any further delay in assaulting Factory area would tilt the balance in favour of the enemy.I knew that I may not survive the next moment, but I was certain that the Factory area would be ours; for hardly I had rushed forward a few yards when I found that the soldiers who had taken cover in front of me, were now rushing ahead of me, joined by others from behind and those emerging from the darkness. Before I knew what was happening, the small group in front of me had rushed through the gate- through the jaws of death. Who were they? The daredevils? To this day I do not know. It was dark and I could not see the faces. Having rushed inside the factory area we were all dispersed inside in different directions to face any unforeseen circumstances. Enemy soldiers manning the MMG's and other defences fled leaving some of their dead and wounded besides weapons, ammunition and equipment.

Aftermath

Finally the Gazipur Tea Estate location had been captured and with this attack the command and control of 22 Baluch was split, the battalion headquarters slipped away from Kalaura, as 4/5 Gorkha Rifles {Frontier Force} advanced to Kalaura and occupied it on 6 December 1971. The Pakistani's had suffered heavy casualties; 15 dead Pakistani soldiers were found on the objective at Gazipur, and the Pakistanis carried away at least 15 of their dead and approximately 40 wounded. The Indians too had paid a heavy price; one officer- CO 2 {Major SG Kelkar} and 10 other ranks killed, 4 officers (Jassi Rawat, Viru Rawat, Sahrawat and YB), two JCOs (Including Delta Senior JCO Subedar Bal Bahadur Thapa) and 57 other ranks injured.

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Battle of Hilli 360

Battle of Hilli

The **Battle of Hilli** or the **Battle of Bogra** was a major battle fought in the Indo-Pakistani War of 1971 and Bangladesh Liberation War. It is generally regarded as the most pitched battle that took place in East Pakistan, now Bangladesh. The battle of Hilli took place between 23 November 1971 and 11 December 1971,^[1] although the final surrender took place on 18 December 1971.

The battle

The main objective of the Indian Army was to control Bogra, thereby cutting off Pakistan forces in the north from the rest of East Pakistan. The best way of getting to Bogra was through Hilli. The frontal assault on the Pakistan fortifications took a huge toll on both sides - the Indian Army suffering the greater number of casualties - before Indian forces finally broke through by establishing a block in the read of Pakistani forces in Hilli, upon which the 4FF Battalion in Hilli was withdrew for the defence of Bogra.

Indian forces

The Indian side consisted of the 20 Indian Mountain Division led by Maj-Gen. Lachhman Singh. The constituent units of this division were 66 Brigade, 165 Brigade, 202 Brigade and 340 Brigade (all infantry units), 3 Armoured Brigade, 471 Engineer Brigade and two artillery brigades augmented by 33 Corps Artillery. The ground troops were aided by aerial support provided by the Indian Air Force which had acquired air superiority in the east and were armed with rockets, guns and 100 lb bombs.

Pakistani forces

On the Pakistan side, the Area of Responsibility (AOR) was on 205 Brigade of Pakistan Army led by Brigadier (later retired as Major General) Tajammul Hussain Malik. He had joined the brigade 4 days ago, when he volunteered to leave GHQ, Rawalpindi and command troops in the East Pakistan. He put up a stiff resistance that earned praise from many quarters.

Major events of the battle

Malik had placed screens along the railway line nearby and at the Railway Station complex in the area. The defensive positions were sited in depth to cover all routes leading into East Pakistan. They fought the entire Indian division and the Mukti Bahini soldiers until the Indians decided to bypass Hilli and establish a block in its rear. Brig. Malik then withdrew the forces in Hilli to avoid being cut off and to defend for the Bogra itself.

Bogra was surrounded from all sides by the greater numbers of the Indian army and the Mukti Bahini. Brig. Malik's resistance continued even after the Pakistani Eastern Command surrendered in Dacca on 16 December. He, in his staff car with flags and stars uncovered went around the streets of Bogra motivating his soldiers to keep fighting. The Indian army had by then, surrounded the city of Bogra. The Brigade Major along with some 50 ORs surrendered but the Brigadier still full of vigour refused to give up.

Brig. Malik ordered the rest of his brigade to break out in small groups to Naogong, where one of his units was still fighting on. However en-route, his jeep was ambushed, severely injuring him and his orderly. Muktis captured both of them and subjected them to torture. They broke his arms and split his head after which he was taken semi-conscious to an Indian army hospital. Major General Nazar Hussain Shah, was especially flown in from Natore for the surrender of this brigade on 18 December 1971, due to the refusal of Brigadier Malik. Upon return from captivity, he was the only brigadier out of 32 or so who fought the 1971 War in East Pakistan to have been promoted to Major General rank.

Battle of Hilli 361

Significance

The battle was a significant one as it involved great personal valour on both sides. This is highlighted by the fact that soldiers on either side won their nation's highest military honours. One of the infantry battalions of the 20 Indian Mountain Division 5/11 Gorkha Rifles distinguished itself here and later earned the battle honour Bogra for itself, the commanding officer of the Indian battalion, then Lt Col F T Dias later rose to the rank of Lieutenant General in the Indian Army. In fact other than the battalion commander one of the company commanders, then Maj J B S Yadava become Lieutenant General and Maj Abject Mamik rose to become a Brigadier and Capt B K Bopanna later become Lieutenant General in the Indian Armed Forces, which is a unique honour to the soldiers of an army.

This battle was also unique in that it had started before the official start of the India Pakistan war but continued right until the formal surrender of Pakistan. Unlike other battles in the East where the Indian army dominated, Pakistan forces gave a very good account of themselves before the combined might of the Indian military managed to occupy the area. The Indians were so impressed by General Tajammul Hussain Malik's fighting tactics that after the war the Indians had sent a team of experts to study the battle on the ground and determine reasons why such a heavy force as described above could not break through that sector until the end.

Awards

- Lance Naik Albert Ekka, 14 Guards of the Indian Army, who fought in this battle, received the only Param Vir Chakra to be awarded in the Eastern Sector during the 1971 War.
- Major Muhammad Akram Shaheed of Pakistan won the Nishan-E-Haider, the highest military honour of the country.
- Maj J B S Yadava (later Lt General) and Maj Abjeet Mamik (later Brigadier), both then company commanders of 5/11 Gorkha Rifles of the Indian Army were awarded Vir Chakra the third highest galangry award of India.
- Lieutenant Colonel (later Brigadier) Tariq Anees Malik of Pakistan received Sitar-e-Jurat.

Notes

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Defence of KamalPur 362

Defence of KamalPur

The **Defence of Kamalpur** refers to the battle fought at Kamalpur near the border in the Indo-Pakistani War of 1971 and Bangladesh Liberation War. The Defence of Kamalpur, a hamlet on the border, by Captain Ahsan Malik and his 140 men would be an epic in any army's history. He had seventy soldiers of 31 Baloch and the same number of para-military troops; all fought magnificently against great odds.

Battle

Attacks against Pakistani border outposts in the north had begun in July. These were mounted by Mukti Bahini, mainly former members of East Pakistan's regular forces, but failed to make any impression. Further attacks on Kamalpur, a kilometre from the border, came on 22 October and 14 November, the latter being made by 13 Guards Battalion (of Kler's brigade), which established blocking positions to the south. Malik was cut off and his CO, Lt. Col. Sultan Mahmood tried to relive him and the other two outposts (Naqshi and Baromari, to the east) without success. On 29 November (all this before 'war' broke out) Major Ayub of 31 Baloch tried to resupply Malik's tiny garrison but failed.

Kler tried to take Kamalpur on the run, using Mukti Bahini troops, and failed. [1][2] He then mounted a battalion attack by 1 Maratha Light Infantry on the forty men and four 120mm mortars of 83 Mortar battery and overran them, suffering one casualty. Kler then 'decided to lay siege to Kamalpur and break down its will to resist', according to General Sukhwant Singh. [3] Getting wary because of casualties, successive failures and demoralisation among the attacking troops, he decided to starve out the garrison by a prolonged siege. [2] A brigade is demoralised by a company? Sukhwant Singh knew that there was no Pakistani Artillery in this sector, only two troops of mortars, but states that Kler was '...further handicapped inasmuch as one of his battalions had just been reorganised from (a unit) raised initially for counterinsurgency with no support elements. In tackling a weak platoon post, another battalion brought out some weaknesses of leadership under fire. The battalion reached its objective with relatively few casualties. As expected, the enemy turned mortar fire on the objective. A mortar bomb landed on the trench occupied by four men close to the commanding officer (Colonel). He saw limbs fly and lost his nerve. [4]

On the other hand Captain Ahsan Malik did not lose his nerve when much worse was happening in his area and he was fighting an unwinnable battle against overwhelming odds.

At about 0930 on 4 December, 'after withdrawing his troops from close siege, Kler 'hammered the post with seven sorties of MiG 21s firing rockets and cannon and this was repeated twice later in the day'. [5] Maj. General Gurbux Singh (commander of the north region) himself entered affairs by sending Captain Malik a note by a Mukti Bahini courier:'...whatever you decide to do we have every intention of eliminating Kamalpur post. It is to save you and our side casualties this message is being sent to you...'. He sent another note after a further air strike and this was met, as had been the other messages, by increased firing by Malik's men. But it could not go on, Malik received the order by radio to surrender, which he did at 1900 that day.

'He had,'as Sukhwant Singh goes on to say,'put up a courageous stand....and surrendered after holding a brigade of besiegers for 21 days....Sam Manekshaw sent a personal congratulatory message to Malik commending his defiant stand.' and wrote 'Militarily his performance was excellent'. [3][6]

Maj. Gen. Gurbux Singh decided to meet Malik personally but, while being driven towards Kamalpur by Kler to meet the brave Captain, their jeep went over a mine and he was badly wounded.

When Captain Ahsan Malik's force was taken in, it was found that his company was nearly out of ammunition, barring a few hand grenades and a few bullets each. They were ready to fling themselves on the enemy with daggers and bayonets if it came to that, until they realized that the piece of territory they were defending was already a different country. Nothing remained there to die for.

Defence of KamalPur 363

When he returned to Pakistan, he was decorated with a Sitara-e-Jurrat which is the third highest military award in Pakistan. Later on, Field Marshal Manekshaw acknowledged the bravery of his men in a letter written to his Pakistani counterpart.

Awards

Captain Ahsan Malik, 31 Baloch of Pakistan Army, was decorated with a Sitara-e-Jurrat.

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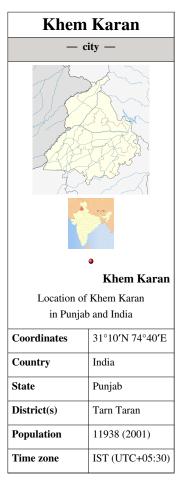
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Khemkaran 364

Khemkaran



Khem Karan (Punjabi: ਖੇਮਕਰਨ) is a town and a nagar panchayat in Tarn Taran district in the Indian state of Punjab. It was the site of a major tank battle in 1965 resulting it also being known as the *graveyard of tanks*.^[1]

The 1965 Indo-Pakistani War was witness to the largest tank battle in military history since World War II. This battle led to the creation of Patton Nagar (or Patton City) at the site of the battle viz., Khemkaran. This is because many Patton tanks fielded by the Pakistani forces were either captured or destroyed at the scene.

Geography

Khemkaran is located at 31°10′N 74°40′E.^[2]

History

Khem Karan is an old city. Guru Tegh Bahadur (1621–1675) visited it. When the Pakistani army captured Khem Karan, it damaged the old gurudwara which was rebuilt after the Indian army recaptured the town during the war.

It used to be in Lahore district before partition of India. It became a part of Amritsar district after the partition. Now it is in Tarn Taran district. The town used to be easily accessible to the city of Kasur only 15 km away, and to Ferozepur 35 km away, but since Partition, it is a far distance to any major city since Kasur now lies in Pakistan, and the route to Ferozepur cuts through Pakistan and so is inaccessible to the town's residents. The town's residents must now travel a long distance to Amritsar or Tarn Taran to procure any major goods, causing great inconvenience.

Khemkaran 365

India-Pakistan war of 1965

The tank battles of 1965 form part of military history as the most intense armored battles between the end of World War II and the 1991 Gulf War. Close to a thousand tanks, on both sides, took part in the pitched battles and offensives. At the start of the war, Indian strength was limited to one armored division and one independent armoured brigade, along with six armoured regiments supporting infantry divisions. Pakistan had two armored divisions, with the then very modern M-48 Patton tanks. India had an equivalent tank in the Centurion, but their strength was limited to only four armored regiments.

Patton Nagar

Near the Bhikhiwind village, a strip of land was called Patton Nagar for a short while in 1965. [3] It was here that more than 60 tanks of the Pakistani army were displayed at the end of the September India-Pakistan conflict. The Pakistan Army tanks were captured at the Battle of Asal Uttar by India's 4 Mountain Division and it became a memorial to the Pakistani tanks being bogged down in the marshes during the 1965 War. The tanks were displayed for some time after which they were shipped to various cantonments and army establishments in India for display as war trophies.



Destroyed Pakistani tanks arranged at "Patton Nagar"

97 tanks captured at Assal Uttar

The Indian Army managed to capture 97 Pakistani tanks as a result of the botched assault by the 1 Armoured Division of the Pakistan Army at the Battle of Assal Uttar on 10 September 1965. [3] Six Pakistani Armoured Regiments took part in the battle, namely the 19 Lancers (Patton), 12 Cavalry (Chaffee), 24 Cavalry (Patton) 4 Cavalry (Patton), 5 Horse (Patton) and 6 Lancers (Patton).

The Indian forces in the field that day consisted of three Armoured regiments with tanks of varying quality, the Deccan Horse (Shermans), 3 Cavalry (Centurion) and the 8 Cavalry (AMX-13). The battle was so fierce and intense that at the end of the war, the Pakistani 1st Armored division had lost about 97 tanks in destroyed/damaged or intact condition. This included 72 Patton tanks and 25 Chaffees and Shermans. 32 of the 97 tanks, including 28 Pattons, were in running



The tanks displayed at Khemkaran

condition. The Indian 4th division lost 32 tanks, mostly Sherman tanks, fifteen of which were captured by the Pakistan Army.

Khemkaran 366

Demographics

As of 2001 India census, [4] Khem Karan had a population of 11,940. Males constitute 55% of the population and females 45%. Khem Karan has an average literacy rate of 47%, lower than the national average of 59.5%: male literacy is 54%, and female literacy is 39%. In Khem Karan, 15% of the population is under 6 years of age.

Places of interest

A well-known place in this village is the mazaar of pir baba shekh brahm.

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Lahore Front

The **Battle of Lahore** (Urdu: لل الأور كي الكائي, Hindi: लाहोर की लड़ाई *Lāhaur kī laḍ.āī*) or the **Lahore Front** were a series of battles in the Indo-Pakistani War of 1965 fought in around Lahore. The battle ended with an Indian tactical victory. However Indian forces stopped their assault on Lahore once they had reached outskirts of the city having captured Burki. The rationale for this was that a ceasefire was to be signed soon, and had India captured Lahore it would likely have been returned in ceasefire negotiations. [2][3][4]

Prelude

After losing hope of a plebiscite in Kashmir, the Pakistani Army invaded the Indian part of Kashmir through a covert operative dubbed Operation Gibraltar. After the Indians spotted the infiltrators, the Indian Army eliminated the saboteurs and inflicted casualties on Pakistani posts across the Cease Fire Line. Pakistan retaliated by launching Operation Grand Slam on 17 August 1965 in an effort to relieve infiltrators who had been surrounded after the failure of Operation Gibraltar on 15 August and to attempt to cut off the Indian supply lines. To relieve forces almost cut off in their part of Kashmir, India then counterattacked by crossing the international border further south with the intention of diverting Pakistani units that were participating in Operation Grand Slam. India's goal was to take distract Pakistani Army's attention and resources away from Operation Grand Slam where unprepared Indian troops were at severe disadvantage against the Pakistani offensive.

The battle

On the night of 5–6 September 1965, Indian XI Corps began its operations by advancing towards Lahore along three axes – Amritsar-Lahore, Khalra-Burki- Lahore and Khem Karan-Kasur roads, overwhelming the small Pakistani force. Pakistan's 10 and 11 Divisions, which were deployed in the sector, began a series of rather confused delaying actions, and by the end of the first day the Indian infantry, backed by heavy armoured troops, were within striking distance of Lahore city. Some advance Indian units managed to capture Ichhogil canal on 6 September but soon withdrew, since support and reinforcements were not expected to reach any time soon. [15]

Lahore Front 367

Pakistani soon launched a three pronged counterattack to counter Indian assault on 8 September^[7] backed by its newly created 1 and 6 Armoured division to break through the front line formed by Indian 4 Grenadiers, 9 Jammu and Kashmir rifles, 1 & 9 Gurkha rifles and Rajput Rifles.^[8]



Destroyed or abandoned Pakistani Patton and Sherman tanks on display near Khem Karan.

About 97 Pakistani tanks were either destroyed or captured by India during the Battle of Asal Uttar. [15][9]

On 8th, Pakistan began counterattack south of Lahore from Kasur towards Khem Karan, an Indian town 5 km from International Border. This was followed by another major armoured on 9 ans 10 September to recapture lost ground despite heavy toll on Pakistani armour. [8] The Pakistani counterattack led to the capture of the village Khem Karan. [10] However a massive Indian counter attack repulsed the Pakistani forces from this sector of Indian territory. Continued heavy attrition specially on Pakistani armour however meant Pakistan could not continue the counterattack from 10 onwards. [8]

Along the Amritsar-Lahore and Khalra-Burki-Lahore axis in middle Indian infantry won decisive battle at Burki. [7] Pakistani counterattack which started on 8th Pakistani artillery pounding Indian advance on 8,9 and 10 September. Indian units continued their advance, and by 22 September, had reached the Ichhogil canal protecting the city of Lahore. Pakistani counterattacks were effectively tackled at Burki with little armour support on 10th punishing Pakistani armour. [7]

Indian advance then moved on to capture Dograi, a town in the immediate vicinity of Lahore. [15] After reaching the outskirts of Lahore Indian Army ensured that Lahore came under constant Indian tank fire to prepare for the main assault on Lahore city before ceasefire was announced. [1]

In the north India won another decisive battle at Phillora supported by its 1 Armoured Division on 11th destroying the Pakistani counterattack. ^[15] Indians continued to advance towards Chawinda in the north from Phillora and reached Chawinda by 17 September. ^[11] However, they were halted at Chawinda till ceasefire on 22 September. This was a result of the exceptional defences backed by artillery were created by Pakistani Brigadier A.A.K. Niazi who had started preparing the defences soon after fall of Phillora. Indian attack in the north only lost momentum at the Battle of Chawinda, after more than 500 km² of Pakistani territory had been captured. ^[1] The Pakistanis being helped by the fact that the network of canals and streams in the sector made for natural defensive barriers. In addition, the prepared defence, comprising minefields, dugouts and more elaborate pillboxes, proved problematic for the Indians. ^[1]

Aftermath

Even after the capture of Dograi on 20–21 September no attempt was made to capture Lahore and the main assault on Lahore was not launched because a ceasefire was to be signed in the following couple of days and it was known that the city would have been given back to even if it was captured. By choosing to attack Lahore, the Indians had managed to relieve pressure from Chumb and Akhnoor in Kashmir, forcing the Pakistan Army to defend further south.

Former Pakistani president Pervez Musharraf asserted that "Pakistan certainly achieved a tactical victory in the sense that we conquered more territory, inflicted more casualties, took more prisoners, and almost blew the Indian Air Force out of the air." []

At the end of hostilties on 23 september India retained Between 140 square miles(War Despatches by Lt. Gen.Harbaksh Singh)and 360 square kilometres(official Indian History of 1965 war) of pakistani territory in the lahore front including major villages of Bedian,Barki,Padri,Dograi,Bhasin and Ichhogil uttar along the eastern bank of the Ichhogil canal.Pakistan only gained small tract of land in Khem Karan of 52 square kilometres. [13][14]

Lahore Front 368

Awards

The Fighting Fifth Battalion of Indian Army which played an important part in capturing Burki was later was conferred with "Battle Honour of Burki" and "Theatre of Honour, Punjab". [15]

The Pakistani commander, Major Raja Aziz Bhatti, was later awarded the Nishan-e-Haider, the highest military decoration given by Pakistan for the battle at Burki, posthumously. Each year he is honoured in Pakistan on 6 September, which is also known as Defence Day.^[16]

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Battle of Longewala

The **Battle of Longewala** (Hindi: लोंगेवाला की लड़ाई *Lōṅgēvālā kī Laḍ.āī*, Urdu: لو الكيوالا كي الثائي) (D4 - 5 December 1971) was one of the first major engagements in the Western Sector during the Indo-Pakistani War of 1971, fought between assaulting Pakistani forces and Indian defenders at the Indian border post of Longewala, in the Thar Desert of the Rajasthan state in India.

The Indian 30th Infantry commanded by Brig E.N. Ramadoss (AVSM,SM, Mentioned-In-Despatches) company (reinforced) was left with the choices of either attempting to hold out until reinforced, or fleeing on foot from a mechanised infantry Pakistani force, choosing the former. The company officer commanding ensured that all his assets were correctly employed, and made the most use of his strong defensive position, and weaknesses created by errors in enemy tactics. He was also fortunate in that an Indian Air Force forward air controller was able to secure and direct aircraft in support of the post's defence until reinforcements arrived six hours later.

The Pakistani commanders made several bad decisions, including failure of strategic intelligence to foresee availability of Indian strike aircraft in the Longewala area, exercising operational mobility with little or no route reconnaissance, and conducting a tactical frontal assault with no engineer reconnaissance. This led to the Pakistani brigade group being left extremely vulnerable to air attack, vehicles becoming bogged in ground surface not suitable for movement of armoured vehicles as they tried to deploy off a single track, these being more susceptible to enemy fire by using external fuel storage in tactical combat, attempting to execute a night attack over unfamiliar terrain, and infantry being surprised by obstacles to troop movement causing confusion and stalling the attack during the crucial hours of darkness when the assaulting infantry still had a measure of concealment from Indian small arms and infantry support weapons fire.

Background

The main thrust of the Indian Army during the 1971 war was directed towards the eastern theatre, with the western sector envisaged as a holding operation to prevent the Pakistan Army from achieving any success that would allow the President of Pakistan, Yahya Khan, any bargaining tool to trade against the captured territories in the east. By the last week of November 1971, the Indian Army had launched offensive manoeuvres at Atgram against Pakistani border posts and communications centres along the eastern border. The Mukti Bahini also launched an offensive on Jessore at this time. [1] It was clear to Islamabad by this time that open conflict was inevitable, and that East Pakistan was indefensible in the long run. [2] Yahya Khan chose at this point to try to protect Pakistan's integrity and to hold India by Ayub Khan's strategy – "The defence of East Pakistan lies in the West". [3]

The Western sector

Khan's policy made the assumption that an open conflict with India would not last long due to International pressure, and that since East Pakistan was undefendable, the war-effort should be concentrated on occupying as large an area of Indian territory as possible as a bargaining tool at the negotiating table. To this end, Gen Tikka Khan had proposed an offensive into India, and the PAF's "overriding priority was to give maximum support to this offensive". The initial plans for the offensive called for at least a temporary cover of air dominance by the PAF under which Khan's troops could conduct a lightning campaign deep into Western India before digging in and consolidating their positions. To support Khan's troops, the PAF had launched pre-emptive strikes on the evening of 3 December that led to the formal commencement of hostilities. In the western theatre, the town of Rahim Yar Khan, close to the international border, formed a critical communication centre for Khan's forces and, situated on the Sindh - Punjab railway, remained a vulnerable link on Khan's logistics. The fall of Rahim Yar Khan to Indian forces would cut off the rail as well as road link between Sindh and Punjab, starving Khan's forces of fuel and ammunitions delivered to Karachi.

Indian battle plans called for a strike across the international border with 12 Indian divisions towards Islamgarh through Sarkari Tala, subsequently advancing through Baghla to secure Rahim Yar Khan, which would not only destabilise the Pakistani defences in the Punjab, but also in the Jammu & Kashmir Sector, allowing the planned Indian offensive in the Shakargarh sector to sweep the Pakistani forces trapped there. [4]

Pakistan, which envisaged the Punjab as an operational centre, had a strong intelligence network in the area and planned to counter its own comparatively weak strength on the ground with a pre-emptive strike through Kishangarh towards the divisional headquarters south of Ramgarh^[4] Pakistani intelligence did a very good job infiltrating the operations area posing as local people and passing on information. However, these sources failed to pass on information on the Longewala post which, originally a BSF post, was now held by a company of the Punjab Regiment. Longewala formed a strategic point en route to capturing vast tracts of land and also a pivotal theatre of war in engaging India on the western front.

Tactical plan

Pakistan's tactical plan was based on the assumption that an attack in the area would help Pakistan's 1st Armoured Divisions task in the Sri Ganganagar area. Pakistan High command also felt that it was important to protect the North-South road link which they felt was vulnerable as it was close to the border. A Combined Operations Plan was decided upon. This involved two Infantry Brigades and two Armoured Regiments. A separate division, the 18 Division, was formed for this purpose. 18 Division Operation Orders required one Infantry Brigade (206) with an Armoured Regiment (38 Cavalry) to capture and establish a firm base at Longewala, a junction on the Indian road system and 51st Infantry Brigade and the 22nd Cavalry (Pakistan Army Armoured Corps) to operate beyond Longewala to capture Jaisalmer.^[5]

The Pakistani plan was to reach Longewala, Ramgarh and Jaisalmer". The plan was far-fetched from the start, if only because it called for a night attack to be conducted over terrain that was not preceded by route or engineer reconnaissance, and the armoured troops were therefore unaware of the ground surface that could not support rapid movement towards the objective. As the day unfolded, Longewala would stand out as one of the biggest losses in a battle for Pakistan despite overwhelming superiority before commencement of the battle, largely due to the vehicles becoming bogged down in soft sand.

Indian defensive planning

On the Indian side, the Longewala post was held by the A company of the 23rd Battalion, Punjab Regiment, ^[6] led by Major K S Chandpuri, the defences occupying a high sand dune which dominated the area that was largely intractable to vehicles. The post was surrounded by a barbed wire fence of three stands. The rest of the battalion was located at Sadhewala, 17 km north-east of the Longewala post. Chandpuri commanded an infantry company reinforced by a section each of MMGs and L16 81mm Mortar, and one Jeep-mounted RCL. His two other recoilless rifle teams of the anti-tank section were under training at the battalion headquarters. Major Chandpuri also had under his command a four-man team of the camel Border Security Force division. ^[7] The Longewala post had no armoured vehicles, but artillery support was available from a battery of 170 Field Regiment (Veer Rajput) tasked in direct support to the battalion, and 168 Field Regiment which had been deployed to the area in secrecy just a day earlier. The direct support battery was attached to the 168 Field Regiment and served as its "Sierra" Battery. Immediately after PAF strikes on Indian airfields on 3 December, Chandpuri dispatched a 20 man strong patrol under Lieutenant Dharam Veer to Boundary Pillar (BP) 638, erected right on the international border. This patrol was to play an important part in detecting the Pakistani forces.

The battle

During the night of the 4th, Lt. Veer's platoon conducting a patrol detected noises across the border that suggested a large number of armoured vehicles approaching. These were soon confirmed by reports - from the Army's Air Observation Post aircraft flown by Maj. Atma Singh - in the area of a 20 km long armoured column on the track leading to the post advancing in the general direction of the Longewala post. Directing Lt Veer's patrol to trail the advancing armoured column, Chandpuri got in touch with the battalion headquarters requesting urgent reinforcements and armour and artillery support. Battalion HQ gave him the choice of staying put, and containing the attack as much as possible, or carrying out a tactical retreat of the company to Ramgarh, as reinforcements would not be available for at least six hours. Considering that Chandpuri's command had no transportation, and was facing a mobile enemy, he decided to maintain the defensive position of the post where his troops at least had the benefit of prepared defensive works, rather than conducting a withdrawal at night that was a far more riskier option.

The Pakistani forces begun their attack at 12:30 am. [10] As the offensive approached the lone outpost, Pakistani artillery opened up across the border with medium artillery guns, killing five of the ten camels from the BSF detachment. As the column of 65 tanks neared the post, Indian defences, lacking the time to lay a prepared minefield, laid a hasty anti-tank minefield as the enemy advanced, one infantryman being killed in the process. [11] The Indian infantry held fire until the leading Pakistani tanks had approached to 15-30 metres before firing their PIATs. [11] They accounted for the first two tanks on the track with their Jeep-mounted 106 mm M40 recoilless rifle, [12] with one of its crew being killed during the combat. This weapon proved quite effective because it was able to engage the thinner top armour of the Pakistani tanks from its elevated position, firing at often stationary bogged down vehicles. In all the post defenders claimed 12 tanks destroyed or damaged. The initial Pakistani attack stalled almost immediately when the infantry discovered the barbed wire which was unseen in the night, and interpreted it to signify a minefield. Firing for the Indian RCL crews was made easier by the flames of fires when the spare fuel tanks on the Pakistani tanks, intended to supplement their internal capacity for the advance to Jaisalmer, exploded, at once providing ample light for Indians located on higher ground, and creating a dense acrid smoke screen at ground level for the Pakistani infantry, adding to the confusion. Two hours were lost as Pakistani sappers were brought up, only to discover there was no minefield. However, at this time Pakistani infantry were required to make another attack, from a different direction, but in the dawn light. The Pakistani advance then attempted to surround the post two hours later by vehicles getting off the road, but many vehicles, particularly armoured personnel carriers and tanks, in trying to soften up the Indian defenders before attacking, became bogged in the soft sand of the area surrounding the post. Throughout the engagement Major Chandpuri continued to direct the supporting artillery fire. [11]

Although massively outnumbering the Indian defenders, and having surrounded them, the Pakistani troops were unable to advance over open terrain on a full-moon night, [10] under small arms and mortar fire from the outpost. This encouraged the Indians not to give up their strong defensive position, frustrating the Pakistani commanders. As dawn arrived, the Pakistan forces had still not taken the post, and were now having to do so in full daylight.

In the morning the Indian Air Force was finally able to direct some HF-24 Maruts and Hawker Hunter aircraft to assist the post; they were not outfitted with night vision equipment, and so were delayed from conducting combat missions until dawn. With daylight, however, the IAF was able to operate effectively, with the strike aircraft being guided to the targets by the airborne Forward Air Controller (FAC) Major Atma Singh in a HAL Krishak. The Indian aircraft attacked the Pakistani ground troops with the 16 Matra T-10 rockets and 30 mm cannon fire on each aircraft. Without support from the Pakistan Air Force, which was busy elsewhere, the tanks and other armoured vehicles were easy targets for the IAF's Hunters. The range of the 12.7 mm anti-aircraft heavy machine guns mounted on the tanks was limited and therefore ineffective against the Indian jets. Indian air attacks were made easier by the nature of the barren terrain. Many IAF officers later described the attack as a 'Turkey Shoot' signifying the lopsidedness. By noon the next day, the assault ended completely, having cost Pakistan 22 tanks claimed destroyed by aircraft fire, 12 by ground anti-tank fire, and some captured after being abandoned, with a total of 100 vehicles claimed to have been destroyed or damaged in the desert around the post. The Pakistani attack was first

halted, and then Pakistani forces were forced to withdraw when AMX-13 Indian tanks from division's cavalry regiment, and the 17th Rajputana Rifles launched their counter-offensive to end the six-hour combat; [11] Longewala had proved to be one of the defining moments in the war.

Aftermath

Notwithstanding the Indian victory, there were intelligence and strategic failures on both sides. India's intelligence failed to provide warning of such a large armoured force in the western sector. Moreover the defending post was not heavily armed to neutralise the enemy. Finally, they did not push home the advantage by finishing more tanks when the IAF had the Pakistan tanks on the run. They did, however destroy or capture some 36 tanks, ^[15] remaining one of the largest disproportionate tank casualties for one side in a single battle after World War II.

Invading Pakistan troops meanwhile, had over-estimated the Longewala post's defensive capability due to the difficulty of approach over sand, conducting the attack at night and in full-moon light, against stiff resistance encountered there from a well prepared defensive position located on a dominant height. Attacking with virtually no air cover, they took long to close for an assault on the position, and failed to anticipate availability of Indian close air support. Given that Pakistan's Sherman tanks and T-59/Type 59 Chinese tanks were slow on the sandy Thar desert, some military analysts have opined that the attack may have been a poorly planned and executed given the terrain. Some Pakistan tanks had suffered engine failures due to overheating in trying to extricate themselves, and were abandoned. The open desert battleground provided little to no cover for the tanks and infantry from air attacks. The plan to capture Longewala may have been good in conception, but failed due to lack of air cover. As a result, two tank regiments failed to take Longewala.

For his part, the Indian company commander Major (later Brigadier) Kuldip Singh Chandpuri was decorated with India's second highest gallantry award, the Maha Vir Chakra. Several other awards were earned by members of the defending company, and the battalion's commander. On the other hand, the Pakistani divisional commander was dismissed from service. However, the commander of the Pakistani 51 Brigade who mounted the daring attack and crossed into Indian territory was later awarded Pakistan's high award of the Sitara-e-Imtiaz.

The British media significantly exploited the defence of Longewala. James Hatter compared the Battle of Longewala as to Battle of Thermopylae in his article 'TAKING ON THE ENEMY AT LONGEWALA' describing it as the deciding moment of the 1971 war. [15] Similarly, Field Marshal R.M. Carver, the British Chief of the Imperial General Staff, visited Longewala a few weeks after the war to learn the details of the battle from Major Chandpuri. [15]

Casualties

The battle of Longewala saw heavy Pakistani losses and low Indian losses. Since the Indians were able to use the defenders advantage, they managed to inflict heavy losses on the Pakistanis. Indian casualties in the battle were 2 soldiers. In addition, one Indian jeep mounted Recoilless rifle was knocked out. Pakistani losses were 200 soldiers killed. The Pakistanis also suffered the loss of 22 tanks destroyed or abandoned, and lost 100 additional vehicles, including APC's.

Battle of Longewala in popular culture

The Battle of Longewala was depicted in the 1997 Bollywood Hindi film *Border*, which was directed by J.P. Dutta and starred Sunny Deol as the Sikh Major Kuldip Singh Chandpuri, Jackie Shroff as the Wing Commander M.S. Bawa, Sunil Shetty as the Rajput Border Security Force Captain Bhairon Singh, and the then teen idol Akshaye Khanna as Lt. Dharam Veer Bhan. ^[16] The main criticism of the movie was that it showed Indian forces being in a terrible position before any sort of help came from the Indian Air Force. The movie also exaggerates the casualties of Indian soldiers for dramatic purposes. ^[17] This was not the case in the real incident as Indian forces had defended a

position on a height that commanded the area, and were able to defend it effectively due to tactical mistakes made by the Pakistani commanders. This resulted in only 2 jawan casualties before combat ceased. Indian troops were later able to capture damaged or abandoned Pakistani tanks.^[18]

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- [8] p.177, Nayar
- [9] p.239, Rao
- [10] p.83, Imprint
- [11] p.42, Sharma
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Meghna Heli Bridge

Meghna Heli Bridge, codenamed **Operation Cactus-Lilly** by India, was a military operation mounted on 9 December 1971 by the Indian Air Force (IAF) to airlift troops of IV Corps of the Indian Army from Brahmanbaria to **Raipura** and Narsingdi over the River Meghna during the Indo-Pakistani War of 1971, bypassing the strong Pakistani defenses at **Ashuganj** and at the destroyed bridge over Meghna.

The Operation

When the war broke out, *IV corps* went into action in the Agartala sector. At the start of the Dacca Campaign, Dacca was set as an objective for *II Corps* and *IV Corps* had been tasked to capture the fortress of Comilla. By 8 December, troops of the *57 Mountain Division* and the *IV Corps* had already achieved their initial objectives of occupying the territory leading up to the Meghna. The only way across the river was over the Ashuganj Bridge, which very soon became a fortress where a Pakistani division had consolidated itself. The strategic importance of breaking down resistance at Ashuganj soon became apparent to Lt Gen Sagat Singh, leading the IV Corps, who realised that his troops could, with a push, threaten Dacca. Once a significant force had been built up, there was no recognisable enemy force between the helidropped force and Dacca. Ashuganj Bridge was the only bridge that spanned the huge Meghna River which at its narrowest point was more than 4000 yards wide. With his troops at Ashuganj, Singh however, realised his formation would be joining in the race to Dacca. As would later turn out, *II Corps* was held at Kushtia by Pakistani defences and did not make it to Dacca.

However, Aerial photos also showed that the bridge had been destroyed and it would require the Army Engineers to construct a new bridge over the sprawling Meghna for Indian troops to advance. Anticipating high casualties in the attempt to take the bridge by force, Singh, along with Maj Gen B F Gonsalves, leading the 57 Mtn Div, made the decision to airlift the troops.

Brilliant in its conception, the idea was fraught with risks and dangers. The move had to go un-opposed, or at the worse, face minimal opposition from Pakistani troops north of Raipura. The Indian troops that were helidropped did not have artillery or armoured support. On the 9th, troops began to be airlifted to Raipura, south of the Ashuganj Bridge. Once this position was consolidated, the troops were to be airlifted to Narsingdi. From Narsingdi the road to Dacca would lie bare for IV Corps to take. To provide support for the heliborne troops, PT-76 Tanks were told to ford the Meghna River.

The Indian Air Force's operation was led by Gp Cpn Chandan Singh and utillised Mi-4 helicopters that had already been involved in the Sylhet air-lift on the night of 7 December. Through the night of 9 December, the IAF air-lifted the entire 311 Brigade. The first troops, numbering around six hundred were landed through the night of the 9th, immediately making contact with Pakistani troops north of Raipura. They however held their positions, with the IAF flying in reinforcements. Over the next 36 hours, over 110 sorties were flown. The Mi-4, which normally carried 14 troops, carried as many as 23 on board. The troops were initially airlifted to Raipura, south of the Ashuganj Bridge. At the same time as this operation was on, 73rd Brigade moved across Meghna on boats and riverine crafts.

After consolidating their positions at Raipura, the troops were helilifted to Narsingdi. After securing Narshingdi, Indian forces captured Daudkandi and Baidder Bazar on 14 and 15 December respectively, both with helicopter

Meghna Heli Bridge 375

assault. From Narshingdi, the metalled road to Dacca lay undefended for IV Corps to take.

Aftermath

The Pakistani Army had left the roads to Dacca undefended moving their defences at the bridge-heads and defensive strong-points, expecting to hold the Indian Army at these positions long enough till the UN and international pressure halted the Indian advance. The **Meghna Helibridge** along with the **Tangail Airdrop** on 11 December ensured that these positions were by-passed, capturing the approaches to Dacca. Moreover, the Pakistani garrison at Ashuganj was effectively put under siege, facing the Indian Army at Brahmanbaria and at Raipura. The **Tangail Airdrop** a day later denied the Pakistani 93 Brigade the sanctuary of Dacca. Dacca now could only be defended by troops within the city.

References

Mitro Bahini Order of Battle December 1971

The Indian Army had no standby force ready in 1971 with the specific task of attacking East Pakistan, one of the many reasons why India did not immediately intervene after Pakistan launched Operation Searchlight in March 1971. Indian Army Eastern Command was tasked with defending the northern and eastern borders and fighting the insurgencies in Nagaland, Mizoram and Naxalites in West Bengal at that time. Mukti Bahini, aided by the Indian army through Operation Jackpot, led the struggle against the Pakistan army while the Indian army readied for intervention. General MAG Osmani, Commander in Chief Bangladesh Forces, had divided Mukti Bahini forces into 11 geographical sectors for command and control purpose. Mukti Bahini forces numbered 30,000 regular soldiers (including 3 brigades containing 8 intanfry battalions and 3 artillery batteries) and at least 100,000 guerrillas by December 1971. The Indian Army Eastern Command assembled two existing infantry corps, the IVth and the XXXIIIrd for operations in Bangladesh, and created a new corps (II)^[2] besides reorganized the 101st Communication Zone as a combat formation. On 21st November, 1971, Indian and Bangladesh forces were put under a joint command structure, led by Lt. Gen. Jagjit Singh Aurora, and this force came to be known as *Mitro Bahini*. In addition to 29 BSF battalions, Hukti Bahini guerrillas operating near the border or awaiting deployment in camps inside India were organized into infantry companies and attached to various Indian formations. Mitro Bahini Order of Battle on December 3, 1971 was: [5]

Indian Army Eastern Command HQ: Fort William, Kolkata

GOC (Indian Army): Lt. General Jagjit Singh Aurora

COS: Maj. Gen. JFR Jacob

Director Military Operations: Major General Inder Gill Director Operation Jackpot: Lt. Gen. B.N. 'Jimmy' Sirkar

Bangladesh Forces Liaison: Group Captain A.K. Khandkar,

HQ: 8, Theater Road, Kolkata

Units attached to Eastern Command but outside Bangladesh operational area:

From IV corps:

- 2nd Mountain division in North eastern border
- 5th Mountain division in North eastern border

From XXXIII corps:

- 17th Mountain division in Sikkim
- 27th Mountain division in Sikkim

Eastern Command Reserve:

- 6th Mountain division less brigade HQ: Cooch Bihar CO: Maj. Gen P.C. Reddy
 - 2 Engineer Regiments and bomb disposal group

Corps: Bengal Area

CO: Maj. Gen. J.P. Chowdhury HQ: Kolkata

- 1/3 Gurkha Battalion
- 11 Bihar
- 12 Garh Rifel
- Engineers and bomb disposal units

Sector: Western Sector

Area of Operation: Khulna, Jessore, Kushtia and Faridpur districts

Corps: II

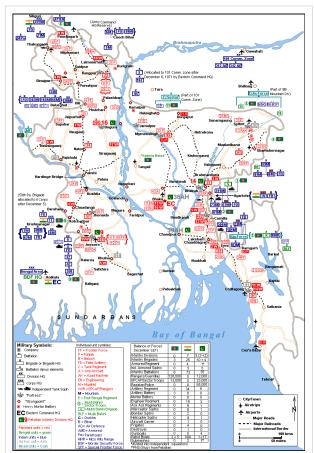
CO: Lt. Gen T.N. 'Tappy' Raina, HQ: Krishnanagar, West Bengal

- 8th Mountain Artillery Brigade
- 58th, 68th and 263rd Engineering Regiments

9th Infantry Division

CO Maj. Gen. Dalbir Singh

- 32 Infantry Brigade Brig. M Tewari
- 42 Infantry Brigade Brig. J. M. Jhoria
- 350 Infantry Brigade Brig. H. S. Sandhu
- 9th Artillery Brigade



Location of Mitro Bahini and Pakistani units on December 1971. Some unit locations are not shown. Map not to exact scale

- 45th Cavalry Regiment (PT-76s)
- 102nd Engineer Regiment
- Mukti Bahini Sector #9 Captain Jalil

4th Mountain Division

CO: Maj. Gen. M.S. Barar HQ: Krishnanagar

- 7th Mountain Brigade Brig. Zail Singh
- 41st Mountain Brigade Brig. Tony Michigan
- 62nd Mountain Brigade Brig. Rajinder Nath
- · 4th Mountain Artillery Brigade
- Mukti Bahini Sector #8 Lt. Col. M.A. Manzoor

North Western Sector

Area of Operation: Rajshahi, Bogra, Dinajpur and Rangpur districts

Corps: XXXIII

CO: Lt. Gen. M. L. Thapan HQ: Siliguri, West Bengal

- Corps Artillery Brigade
- 471st Engineering Brigade Colonel Suri
- 50th Independent Parachute Brigade Brig M. Thomas
 - 235th Army Engineering Regiment
- MF Brigade Brig. Prem Singh
- Mukti Bahini Sector #7 Lt. Col. Q.N. Zaman
- 71st Mountain Brigade Brig. P. N. Kathpalia
- Mukti Bahini Sector #6 Wing Commander Mohammad K. Bashar

20th Mountain Division

CO: Maj. Gen. Lachman Singh HQ: Balurghat, West Bengal

- 66th Mountain Brigade Brig. G. S. Sharma
- 165th Mountain Brigade Brig. R. S. Pannu
- 202nd Mountain Brigade Brig. F. P. Bhatty
- 3rd Armoured Brigade (63rd Cavalry (T-55s) and 69th Armored Regiment (PT-76s) Brig G. Singh Sidhu
- 20th Mountain Artillery Brigade
 - 13th Engineering Regiment
- 340th Mountain Brigade Group Brig. Joginder Singh
 - 97th Mountain Regiment

6th Mountain Division

(Eastern Command HQ Reserve) CO Maj. Gen. P. C. Reddy HQ: Kooch Bihar, West Bengal

- 9th Mountain Brigade Brig. Tirit Varma
- 99th Mountain Brigade -
- 6th Mountain Artillery Brigade
 - 51st Engineer Regiment

North Eastern Sector

Area of Operation: Mymensingh and Tangail districts

101st Communication Zone

CO: Maj. Gen. Gurbax Singh Gil HQ: Guwahati, Assam

- 312 Air Defence Brigade
- 342 Ind. Air Defence Brigade
 - 56th Mountain Regiment plus Engineers
- 95th Mountain Brigade Brig. Hardev Singh Kler
- FJ Sector Brigade Brig. Sant Singh^[6]
- Mukti Bahini Sector #11 Lt. Col. Abu Taher
- 167th Infantry Brigade Brig. Irani (allotted after December 8, 1971)
- 5th Mountain Brigade (allotted after December 8th, 1971)

Eastern Sector

Area of Operation: Sylhet, Comilla, Noakhali & Chittagong districts

IV Corps

CO Lt. General Sagat Singh HQ: Agartala, Tripura

- · Corps Artillery Brigade
- Three Independent Tank Squadrons
 - 4th, 62nd, 234th Engineer Regiments and support elements

8th Mountain Division

CO: Maj. Gen. K.V. Krishna Rao

- Echo Force Brigade Brig. Wadeker
- Mukti Bahini Sector #5 Major Mir Shawkat Ali
- 59th Mountain Brigade Brig C. A. Quinn
- 81st Mountain Brigade Brg. R. C. V. Apte
- 2nd Mountain Artillery Brigade
- Mukti Bahini Sector #4 Lt. Col. C.R. Dutta

57th Mountain Division

CO: Maj. Gen. B.F. Gonsalves

- Mukti Bahini S Force Brigade Lt. Col K.M. Shafiullah
- 311th Mountain Brigade Brig. Mishra
- 73rd Mountain Brigade Brig. Tuli
- 61st Mountain Brigade Brig. Tom Pande
- 57th Mountain Artillery Brigade
- Mukti Bahini Sector #3 Maj. A. N. Nuruzzaman
- Mukti Bahini Sector #2 Maj. A.T.M Haider
 - 15th Engineering Regiment

23rd Mountain Division

CO: Maj. Gen. R.D. Hira

- 301st Mountain Brigade Brig. H. S. Sodhi
- 181st Mountain Brigade Brig. Y. C. Bakshi
- 83rd Mountain Brigade Brig. B. S. Sandhu
- 23rd Mountain Artillery Brigade
- Kilo Force Brigade Brig. Ananda Swaroop^[7] containing:
 - Mukti Bahini Sector #1 Major Rafiqul Islam
 - Mukti Bahini K Force Brigade Major Salek Chowdhury
 - Mizo Range Hills Brigade^[8]

Indian Navy Eastern Fleet

CO: Vice Admiral N. Krishnnan HQ: Vishakhapatnam, Andhra Pradesh

Fleet Commander: Rear Admiral S. A. Sharma

A liaison officer from the Navy was posted at Fort William to coordinate matters with the Army Eastern Command. The fleet was at its peacetime standing when radio intercepts warned of PNS *Ghazi* entering the Bay of Bengal. INS Vikrant and part of the fleet was moved to the Andamans as a result.

- INS Vikrant Captain Sawraj Prakash (Majestic class light Aircraft Carrier)
- INS Brahmaputra Captain J.C. Puri (Leopard class frigate)
- INS Beas Captain L. Ram Das (Leopard Class Frigate)
- INS *Kamrota* Captain A.P. Awati (Petya class frigate)
- INS Kavaratti Captain S. Paul (Petya class frigate)
- INS *Rajput* Lt. Commander Inder Singh (destroyer)
- INS *Kalvari* (Submarine)
- INS *Khandari* Commander R. J. Milan (Submarine)
 - INS *Panvel* Lt. Com. G.R. Naroha (Gunboat)
 - INS *Pulikat* Lt. Com. S. Krishnnan (Gunboat)
 - INS *Panaji* Lt. Com. R. Gupta (Gunboat)
 - INS Akshay Lt. Com. S.D. Moore (Gunboat)
 - INS Gharial Lt. Commander U. Dabir (Landing Ship)
 - INS Gildar Lt. Commander A.K. Sharma (Landing Ship)
 - INS Maggar Lt. Commander AT. N. Singhal (Landing Ship)

Bangladesh Navy

2 gunboats under Indian officers and crewed by Bengali seamen were engaged in *Operation Hotpants* prior to December 3, 1971, harassing merchant traffic to East Pakistan and laying mines on the waterways. After December 6th, when the Indian Government recognized Bangladesh as a sovereign nation, the crew wore uniforms of their respective organizations.

Squadron CO: Commander N.M Samant (On deputation from Indian Navy)

- BNS *Palash* Lt. A.K. Mitra (On deputation fom Indian Navy) (Gunboat)
- BNS Padma Lt. Commander J.K. Rai Chowdhury (Indian Navy) (Gunboat)

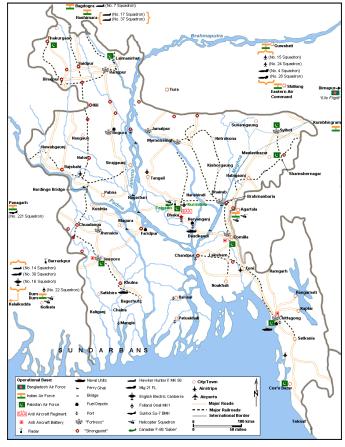
Indian Air Force Eastern Command

CO: Air Marshal H. C. Dewan, Temporary advanced HQ at Fort William

Prior to 1971, Indian Air Force had two command centers dealing with the East, Eastern Command (HQ Shillong) responsible for the North Eastern Border, and the Central (HQ Allahbad), looking after areas south of the Ganges river. Air Chief Marshal P.C Lal formed an advance HQ at Fort William after consultation with Maj. Gen Jacob to coordinate operations with the army before the start of the war.

Western Sector:

- No. 7 Squadron (*Battle Axes*): Hawker Hunter F. MK 56 and 2 F. MK 1 - Bagdogra (WC Ceolho, then WC Suri). The squadron was moved Chamb after December 12.
- No. 14 Squadron (*Bulls*): Hawker Hunter F. MK 56 - Kalaikudda (WC Sundersan) -Fighter
- No. 16 Squadron (*Rattlers*): Canberra -Kalaikudda - (WC Gautum) - Bomber
- No. 22 Squadron (Swifts): Folland Gnat MK
 1 Dum Dum, then Kalaikudda, then Calcutta (WC Sikand)



Location of Mitro Bahini and Pakistani units on December 1971. Some unit locations are not shown. Map not to exact scale

- No. 30 Squadron (Charging Rhinos): Mig 21 FL Kalaikudda (WC Chudda) Interceptor
- No. 221 Squadron (Valiants): Su-7 BMK Panagarh (WC Sridharan) Fighter/Bomber
- No. 104 (Alluitte 3) and No. 104 (Mi-4) Heli units

North East and North Western Sector: CO: Air Vice Marshal Devasher HQ: Shillong

- No. 4 Squadron (*Oorials*): Mig 21 FL Gauhati (Wing Commander JV Gole)
- No. 15 Squadron (*Flying Lancers*): Folland Gnat Gauhati then Agortala (WC Singh)
- No. 17 Squadron (Golden Arrows): Hawker Hunter F MK 56 Hashimara (WC Chatrath)
- No 37 Squadron (Black Panthers): Hawker Hunter F MK 10 Hashimara (WC Kaul)
- No. 24 Squadron (*Hunting Hawks*): Folland Gnat Gauhati (WC Bhadwar)
- No. 28 Squadron (First Supersonics): Mig 21FL Gauhati (WC Bishnu)

• No. 105 (Mi-4) and 121 (Alouette III) Helicopter Squadrons - Agartola

Bangladesh Air Force: *Kilo Flight* CO: Flight Lt. Sultan Mahmud HQ: Dimapur Nagaland, then Agartala This unit was formed by Bengali pilots and technicians defecting from the Pakistan Air Force. Flying light aircraft donated by India, they launched attacks on depots and communication lines on December 2, 1971, before the start of the war. The unit relocated to Agartala and then Shamshernagar after December 3, 1971.

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- [4] Salik, Siddiq, Witness to Surrender, p123
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Operation Chengiz Khan

Operation Chengiz Khan was the code name assigned to the pre-emptive strikes carried out by the Pakistani Air Force (PAF) on the forward airbases and radar installations of the Indian Air Force (IAF) on the evening of 3 December 1971, and marked the formal initiation of hostilities of the Indo-Pakistani War of 1971. Mounted in three waves between 17:39 and 23:00 hrs, the strikes were targeted against the Indian airbases of Amritsar, Ambala, Agra, Awantipur, Bikaner, Halwara, Jodhpur, Jaisalmer, Pathankot, Bhuj, Srinagar and Uttarlai as well as against air defence radars at Amritsar and Faridkot.^[1]

In an address to the nation on radio that same evening, the then Indian Prime Minister Indira Gandhi held the air strikes to be a declaration of war against India, [2][3] and the Indian Air Force responded with initial air strikes the same night, which were expanded to massive retaliatory air strikes the next morning, [4][5] as anticipated by the Pakistan Air Force. Statements released by both nations the next day confirmed the "existence of a state of war between the two countries", although neither government had formally issued a declaration of war. [3]

Background

In March 1971, East Pakistan (now Bangladesh) declared independence from Pakistan, starting the Bangladesh Liberation War following rising political discontent and cultural nationalism in East Pakistan and the brutal suppressive force from West Pakistan in response (see Operation Searchlight and 1971 Bangladesh atrocities). [6][7][8] Pakistan came under increasing criticism^[9] from India, the Soviet Union, Japan, and Europe as the plight of the refugees and their impact on the Indian economy were highlighted by Indira Gandhi in the UN and on a number of global tours. [3] However, the United States and China showed little interest in the situation and actively opposed aid, intervention or support to the Mukti Bahini [10][11] (possibly fearing advancement of Soviet influence deep into South Asia [9]). India's aid to the Mukti Bahini continued unabated, and fighting between the Mukti Bahini and the Pakistani forces grew increasingly vicious. On 9 August 1971, India signed a twenty-year co-operation treaty with the Soviet Union [12] which promised military support to either nation should she be attacked. This provided India cover against any possible Chinese or American intervention in aid of Pakistan if it went to war with India. To the Pakistani leadership, it became clear that armed Indian intervention and secession of East Pakistan was becoming inevitable. [13]

The strategy of pre-emption

By October 1971, the Mukti Bahini had started launching massive raids deep into East Pakistan with active support of the Indian Army troops. [14] The situation had detoriorated to a state of active undeclared war in the East by the end of November, when Indian and Mukti Bahini forces launched offensives on both the eastern and western borders of East Pakistan. Regular Indian army troops engaged and mauled Pakistani armour at Garibpur [15] while offensive manouvres were launched in Atgram against Pakistani border posts and communications centres along the eastern border. The Mukti Bahini also launched an offensive on Jessore at this time. [16] It was clear to Islamabad by this time that open conflict was inevitable, and that East Pakistan was indefensible in the long run. [17] Yahya Khan chose at this point to try to protect Pakistan's integrity and to hold India by Ayub Khan's strategy – "The defence of East Pakistan lies in the West". [18]

This policy made the assumptions that an open conflict with India would not last long due to international pressure, and since East Pakistan was undefendable, the war-effort should be concentrated on occupying as large an area of Indian territory as possible as a bargaining tool at the negotiating table. To this end, Gen. Tikka Khan had proposed an offensive into India, and the PAF's overriding priority was to give maximum support to this offensive. The initial plans for the offensive called for at least a temporary cover of air dominance by the PAF under which Khan's troops could conduct a lightning campaign deep into Western India before digging in and consolidating their positions. In order to achieve air dominance, Pakistan decided to launch an offensive counter air strike codenamed *Operation Chengiz Khan* on Indian airbases.

A second objective for the PAF was to conduct air interdiction against the supply routes for the Indian troops opposing Khan's proposed offensive, but these were accorded as secondary targets to be engaged after the operation started.

Operation Chengiz Khan

The PAF's strikes were based on the same strategy of pre-emptive neutralization of enemy air capability used by the Israeli Air Force against Egyptian and Arab air forces in Operation Focus during the Six-Day War of 1967. [1][19]

The decision to hit India with a pre-emptive air strike was taken on 30 November 1971 during a meeting among the Pakistani President, Gen. Yahya Khan, Chief of Staff Gen. Abdul Hamid Khan, and the Chief of General Staff, Lt. Gen. Gul Hassan Khan.

The objectives of the strike were:

• To surprise the IAF by attacking its forward airfields when it was least expected.

- To neutralize these in order to obtain at least temporary battlefield air superiority in the West.
- *To counter-balance* the Indian numerical advantage by hitting the forward operating bases of the Indian Air Force as a measure reducing the weight of expected counterattacks on PAF's own bases.

To achieve surprise, the decision was made to strike on a Friday, the day of the *jumu'ah* (Muslim Sabbath), at 17:45 hrs when shifts in IAF control centers were changing. Emulating its operations' experience in battle against the Indian Air Force during the Indo-Pakistani Conflict of 1965, the decision was made to hit the Indian bases in a two-wave dusk strike followed by a number of night-interdiction missions through the night. The plans for the strike also anticipated the Indians securing their aircraft in blast pens. Also, anticipating difficulty in target acquisition for camouflaged targets such as fuel tanks, ammunition dumps and command centers, the primary objectives set for the operation were the runways and air defense radars.

The first strikes

The final orders for the strike were issued at 17:30 hrs. The first formations were in air and heading for their targets by 17:40 hrs. Officially, it was announced via government channels that the airstrikes were launched in response to attacks along the western border on Pakistan Rangers' outposts by regular troops of the Indian army, which the Indian Air Force was providing support to.^[3] The Indians would later deny any engagement on the Western Front.^[3] However, the Indian air defence radars failed to detect the approaching formations. The first indications for the Indians of the impending assault was the roar of the strike aircraft over their airfields,^[1] while in Delhi, the air-raid sirens were the first indications for newsmen, gathered for the daily brief of the East-Pakistan situation, that something was going on.^[3]

The first two waves deployed 32 aircraft. Of these, 24 were F-86F Sabres equipped with bombs, 8 Mirage IIIs armed with bombs, and 4 F-104s armed with cannons. The raids were limited to one pass at a relatively high level with the pilots ordered not to operate below 300m AGL as defence against ground fire.

- Pathankot The first of the strikes were mounted against Pathankot AB. Led by a flight of two Mirage IIIs (a reconnaissance craft and a strike escort) [1] a six ship mission of F-86Fs flying from Murid and led by Wing Commander S N Jilani hit Pathankot with unguided rockets and dropped several 125 kg bombs. The main target of this strike was the runway, which was damaged and took the Indian ground crew several hours to repair. These missions went unopposed since the IAF had not scrambled any interception, and faced only AA. Pathankot was covered by interceptors from Adampur following this first strike during the time it took the ground crew to repair its runway. [20]
- Amritsar At 17:45 hrs, four Mirages flying from Sargodha and led by Wing Commander Hakimullah attacked Amritsar AB. Hakimullah's flight was armed with two 500 kg bombs each, which the strike used efficiently hitting the first 300m of the runway and cratering it enough to leave it nonoperational for several hours. [21] However, the Amritsar runway was repaired within the same night to receive detachments of Mig 21s and Su-7 that flew against Rafiqui AB the next morning. A second strike of two F-104 Starfighters, led by Wing Commander Amjad H Khan hit the P-35 radar station at Amritsar, rendering it inoperational for nearly an hour. On one remaining serviceable lane of runway, two sukhois took off moments before it got bombed by a passing B-57. [20]
- Srinagar Srinagar was hit at 17:50 hrs by a flight of six F-86Fs led by Wing Commander Changezi. Flying from Peshawar, the strike hit a fully lit up Srinagar airport with 250 kg bombs. However, this strike failed to cause any significant damage. Srinagar was to be attacked a second time, during the followup strikes later in the evening, by a C-130 commanded by Group Captain Qayyum. However Srinagar largely escaped unscathed.
- Awantipur Awantipur was hit at the same time as Srinagar, at approximately 17:50 hrs by a flight of F-86 Sabres led by Wing Commander Abdul Aziz. Awantipur, at this time did not have any IAF aircraft based there. The strike therefore did not achieve any significant results.

• Faridkot — At 17:53 hrs, a two ship mission of F-104As flying from Masroor and led by Wing Commander Arif Iqbal hit the Faridkot radar station with cannon fire. This strike damaged the P-35 radar significantly. One of the pilots found it hard to resist the sight of a light aircraft parked near the runway and made an extra attack to destroy it.

All the Pakistani aircraft deployed in this first wave were recovered safely. However, the orders to make relatively high level passes also compromised the effectiveness of these strikes, with the result that IAF ground personnel were able to complete the repair to whatever damage was caused within the same night, hindered only by the follow-up waves.

Within forty-five minutes of these strikes, Pakistani troops had shelled India's western frontier and were reported to have crossed the border at Punch in the state of Jammu. [3]

Followup counter-air strikes

The third wave of the PAF counter air strikes were directed to strike Ambala, Agra and Halwara around 18:00 hrs and continued in single or two ship formations through the evening until at least 22:30 hrs. These strikes involved fifteen B-57 Canberras, four T-33s, and one C-130. The B-57s flew seven single ship sorties. These caused significant damage, especially in in Uttarlai and Halwara and impeded IAF's preparation for retaliation.

- **Ambala** Ambala was a hit by a two ship B-57 formation led by Wg. Cdr. Rais Rafi. The flight hit the runway with eight bombs, causing minor damage.
- Agra Like Ambala, Agra, which lay deepest among the PAF's targets that evening, was struck by a two ship mission of B-57 led by Wg. Cdr. Yunus and suffered minor damage. Ironically, the first Indian Counter strikes launched that very night included the Canberras of No.5 Sqn^[4] were based at Agra.
- Halwara Halwara was struck twice on the night of the 3rd. The first of these was by a two ship flight of B-57s led by Sqn. Ldr. Abdul Basit. This flight struck the runway with eight bombs, three of which landed on target and significantly damaged it. Halwara was attacked a second time by a single B-57 bomber just before midnight. The arrival of the aircraft was detected by radar and the anti aircraft defences were ready. The aircraft dropped some bombs on the runway and airfield. One of the bombs dropped by the aircraft was equipped with a delayed fuse. It exploded while being examined and killed a navigator from the missile squadron. Halwara was not repaired before early the next morning.
- Amritsar and Bikaner Amritsar was attacked a second time at around 22:10 hrs by the flight of Flt. Bikaner
 was attacked by Sqn. Ldr. Haq while Pathankot was struck by Flt. Lt. Sultan Arshad. Neither of these caused any
 significant damage.
- **Sirsa** Sirsa was hit by Sqn. Ldr. Alvi with bombs equipped with time-delayed fuses, damaging the runway heavily and forcing the runway to be closed for the rest of the night. [21]
- Bhuj Was accurately bombed and IAF commanding officer found it difficult to get enough labour to repair it.
- Uttarlai Four T-33s from A-Flight No.2 Squadron, led by Sqn. Ldr. Qureshi, hit Uttarlai, causing damage to the runway. These were launched at the same time as the second strike over Srinagar. Uttarlai was attacked a second time later that night by Wg. Cdr. Akhtar. The net damage to the runway was significant enough to keep the runway closed for six days and for the taxiway to be used instead. [20]
- Jaisalmer, Jodhpur and Jamnagar In the south, Sqn. Ldr. Ishtak Qureshi's bombs hit the underground power cable at Jaisalmer, cutting off the power supply and telephone connection for six hours. At the same time, Jodhpur was hit by two B-57s led by Sqn. Ldr. Sohail Mansur while Jamnagar was hit by Flt. Lt. Ejaz Azam. [20]

The later flights were not expected to achieve any significant objectives which they miraculously did, and also aided to hamper any counter-air strike by the IAF.^[1] The pilots were all qualified for night flying and were to continue flying such raids for the rest of the war, gaining the nickname "Uttarlai Night Mail".

The Indian retaliation

As Indian Prime Minister Indira Gandhi addressed the nation on radio shortly after midnight^[2] informing about the Pakistani attack, the Indian Air Force struck back. By 21:00hrs, the Canberras of the No.35 Squadron and No.106 Squadron, as well as No.5 and No.16 squadron were armed and ready for their foray deep into Pakistan. These flew against eight Western Pakistani airfields of Murid, Mianwali, Sargodha, Chander, Risalewala, Rafiqui, and Masroor. In total, 23 combat sorties were launched that night, inflicting heavy damage to Sargodha and Masroor. ^[1] The PAF units stationed on these airfields had to operate from taxiways for the following two days.

Through the night the IAF also struck the main East Pakistani airfields of Tejgaon, and later Kurmitolla. At the same time, the IAF was deploying additional aircraft to its forward airfields for the strikes that were to follow the next morning. Within two days, the Indian Air Force was to achieve complete air supremacy in the East Pakistan.^[13]

Analysis

In total, the Pakistani Air Force dropped 183 bombs over 12 target runways and 120 hits were reported by the pilots. However, of its stated objectives, the PAF was unable to neutralize the Indian Air Force in the west although it certainly achieved surprise. The Indian Air Force was unable to offer any resistance to the first waves other than ground fire. The damage to the facilities, albeit limited, also meant that the third wave went unchallenged in the air.

Just as importantly, only a limited section of the PAF's strike capability was employed during Operation Chengiz Khan. Also, compared to the Israeli Air Force's preparation for airstrikes against Egyptians (the Israeli pilots had flown against replicas of the most important Arab airfields) and the use of specific armaments, the PAF had been limited by servicability before the USA supplied spare parts in March of the year and training was limited if any. Constraints of the fledgling Pakistani economy also meant the development of its military could not be supported. The Pakistani Air Force thus lacked ammunition for effective runway denial. East Pakistani personnel of the PAF who defected may have revealed some of the plans, and it appears that IAF was expecting a pre-emptive strike against its forward airfields. A large-scale offensive was therefore doomed to fail, likely to cause heavy losses and bring the PAF in a position where it could never seriously challenge IAF operations.

Yet to prove the positive results of PAF's attack, the following narration comes from an Indian Mig-21 pilot taken prisoner after being shot down over Pakistan. Flight Lieutenant Harish Sinhji, who belonged to a Sirsa-based squadron, stated: [22]

"After one of PAF's night bombing strikes on our airfield, we were all grounded for six hours. The runway had been cratered in many places. The following morning our CO, Wing Commander V B Sawardekar, took us all to the runway to show us the Pakistani pilot's bombing accuracy. Pointing to the craters on our runway he said 'this is the kind of bombing accuracy the IAF pilots should achieve against Pakistani targets." [23][24][25]

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Operation Gibraltar

Operation Gibraltar was the codename given to the strategy of Pakistan to infiltrate Jammu and Kashmir, the northernmost state of India, and start a rebellion against Indian rule. Launched in August 1965, Pakistan Army's 50th Airborne paratroopers and Pakistan Army's guerrillas, disguised as locals, entered Jammu and Kashmir from Pakistan with the intention of fomenting an insurgency among Kashmiri Muslims. However, the strategy went awry from the outset as it was not well-coordinated and the infiltrators were soon found. The debacle was followed by an Indian counterattack that resulted in the 1965 Indo-Pakistani War.

The operation was a significant one as it sparked a large scale military engagement between the two neighbours, the first since the Indo-Pakistani War of 1947. Its success, as envisaged by its Pakistani planners, could have given Pakistan control over a unified Kashmir; something that Pakistan desired to achieve at the earliest opportunity. However, the plan misfired and triggered a war (the Indo-Pakistani War of 1965) where Pakistan was put on the defensive and forced by the Indian army to retreat back to normal borders.

Background

Following the First Kashmir War which saw India gaining the majority of the disputed area of Kashmir, Pakistan sought an opportunity to win remaining Kashmir areas. The opening came after the Sino-Indian War in 1962 after India's war with the China and as a result the Indian Military was undergoing massive changes both in personnel and equipment. During this period, despite being numerically smaller than the Indian Military, Pakistan's armed forces had a qualitative edge in air power and armour over India, which Pakistan sought to utilise before India completed its defence build-up. The Rann of Kutch episode in the summer of 1965, where Indian and Pakistani forces clashed, resulted in some positives for Pakistan. Moreover, in December 1963, the disappearance of a holy relic from the Hazratbal shrine in Srinagar, created turmoil and intense Islamic feeling among Muslims in the valley, which was viewed by Pakistan as ideal for revolt. These factors bolstered the Pakistani command's thinking: that the use of covert methods followed by the threat of an all out war would force a resolution in Kashmir. Assuming that a weakened Indian Military would not respond, Pakistan chose to send in "mujahideens" and Pakistan Army regulars into Jammu and Kashmir.

The original plan for the Operation, codenamed Gibraltar, was prepared as early as the 1950s; however it seemed appropriate to push this plan forward given the scenario. Backed by then foreign minister Zulfiqar Ali Bhutto and others, the aim was an "attack by infiltration" by a specially trained irregular force of some 40,000 men, highly motivated and well armed. It was reasoned that the conflict could be confined only to Kashmir. In the words of retired Pakistani General Akhtar Hussain Malik, the aims were "to defreeze the Kashmir problem, weaken Indian resolve, and bring India to the conference table without provoking general war." As a result, groundwork and intelligence gathering for execution of the plan was laid by launching "Operation Nusrat", the purpose of which was to locate gaps in the Cease Fire Line (CFL) that were to serve as entry points for the mujahideen, and to gauge the response of the Indian army and the local population. [8]

Execution of plan

Name of Force	Area of operation
Salahudin	Srinagar Valley
Ghaznavi	Mendhar-Rajauri
Tariq	Kargil – Drass
Babur	Nowshera-Sundarbani
Qasim	Bandipura-Sonarwain
Khalid	Qazinag-Naugam
Nusrat	Tithwal-Tangdhar
Sikandar	Gurais
Khilji	Kel-Minimarg

Despite initial reservations by the President of Pakistan Ayub Khan, the operation was set in motion. In the first week of August 1965, (some sources put it at 24 July)^[9] Pakistani troops, members of the SSG commandos and irregulars began to cross the Cease Fire Line dividing Indian- and Pakistani-held Kashmir. Several columns were to occupy key heights around the Kashmir valley and encourage a general revolt, which would be followed by direct combat by Pakistani troops. According to Indian sources as many as $30,000^{[10][11]} - 40,000$ men had crossed the line, while Pakistani sources put it at 5,000 -7,000 only. These troops known as the "Gibraltar Force" were organized and commanded by Major General Akhtar Hussain Malik, GoC 12 Division [13][14] The troops were divided into 10 forces (each of 6 units of 5 companies each)^[10]. The 10 forces were given different code names, mostly after historically significant Muslim rulers. The operation's name, Gibraltar, itself was chosen for the Islamic connotations. The 8th century Umayyad conquest of Hispania was launched from Gibraltar, a situation not unlike that Pakistan envisaged for Indian Kashmir, i.e. conquest of Kashmir from Operation Gibraltar. The areas chosen were mainly on the de facto Cease Fire line as well as in the populous Kashmir Valley.

The plan was multi-pronged. Infiltrators would mingle with the local populace and incite them to rebellion. Meanwhile guerrilla warfare would commence, destroying bridges, tunnels and highways, harassing enemy communications, logistic installations and headquarters as well as attacking airfields, with a view to create the conditions of an "armed insurrection" in Kashmir — leading to a national uprising against Indian rule. It was assumed that India would neither counter-attack, nor involve itself in another full-scale war, and the liberation of Kashmir would rapidly follow.

Indian retaliation

Despite the operational planning, the intruders were detected by Indian forces in Kashmir. With the exception of four districts which did revolt, the local Kashmiris did not cooperate as expected. Instead, they conveyed news of the planned insurgency to the local authorities and turned the infiltrators in. Gibraltar Force was soon facing attacks from the Indian Army who moved in immediately to secure the border. The majority of the infiltrators were captured by the Indian troops, although some managed to escape. India accused the Pakistani government of sending and aiding the seditionists, and although Pakistan denied any complicity, [11][18] it was soon proved that the foreigners were all of Pakistani origin. In fact several of them were found to be officers in the Pakistan Army, with the UNMOGIP Chief, General Nimmo also confirming Pakistan's involvement. [18]

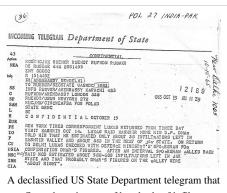
India swiftly launched counter attacks across the cease fire line, attacking the Pakistan divisions in POK that had provided cover for the infiltrators. As a result, many of these posts fell to Indian attacks resulting in territorial gains for India. On August 15, India scored a major victory after a prolonged artillery barrage. Their success in countering Pakistani plans proved to be a morale booster for Indian troops, coming exactly on India's independence day. Fighting continued until the end of the month, as vital pockets like Haji Pir pass — which was the logistical supply

route of the infiltrators [19] — and other nearby areas were also brought under Indian control.

The Indian offensive resulted in defeat of Pakistani troops in the covert guerilla operation. Frustrated with the failure of Operation Gibraltar Gen. Ayub Khan^[14] urgently launched Operation Grand Slam to contain the situation since there was no contingency planned in case of Gibraltar's failure. This however resulted in more problems for Pakistan, as India countered by crossing the international border further south in Punjab, starting the war of 1965.

Reasons for failure

While the covert infiltration was a complete failure that ultimately led to the Second Kashmir War, military analysts have differed on whether the plan itself was flawed. Some have held that the plan was well-conceived but was let down by poor execution, but almost all Pakistani and neutral analysts have maintained that the entire operation was "a clumsy attempt" and doomed to collapse. According to then Chief of the Pakistan Air Force, Air Marshal Nur Khan, there was little coordination amongst the military services on the impending operation. Pakistani author Pervaiz Iqbal Cheema notes that Muhammad Musa, Pakistan's Chief of the Army Staff, was reportedly so confident that the plan would succeed and conflict would be localized to Kashmir that he did not inform the Air Force, as he



A declassified US State Department telegram that confirms the existence of hundreds of infiltrators in the Indian state of Jammu and Kashmir.

believed the operation would not require any major air action. [9] Many senior Pakistani military officers and political leaders were unaware of the impending crisis, thus surprising not only India, but also Pakistan itself. Furthermore, few people in Kashmir were really interested in revolting against India, a fact largely ignored while planning. [22]

Colonel SG Mehdi, the SSG commander, cited the above reasons as well as a few others (such as logistical problems and a confusion of classic guerrilla operations with commando raids) as to why the operation would fail even before its launch. He also added that many SSG officers were unsure of the means and uncertain of the end. [23] Initially, Pakistan's Chief of Army Staff General Muhammad Musa opposed *Gibraltar* on the grounds that if the operation was a non-starter, then Pakistan would not be able to defeat India in the ensuing war. Many senior officials also were against the plan, as a failure could lead to an all-out war with India, which many wanted to avoid. The resulting war of 1965 had a greater negative impact on Pakistan than on India. [24][25][26]

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Operation Meghdoot 391

Operation Meghdoot

Operation *Meghdoot* was the code-name for the Indian Armed Forces operation to capture the Siachen Glacier in the disputed Kashmir region, precipitating the Siachen Conflict. Launched on 13 April 1984, this military operation was unique as the first assault launched in the world's highest battlefield. The military action resulted in Indian troops gaining control of the entire Siachen Glacier.

Today, the Indian Army deployment to forward positions along what is known as the Actual Ground Position Line (AGPL) is also sometimes inaccurately referred to as Operation Meghdoot. Up to 10 Infantry Battalions each of the Indian Army and Pakistani Army are actively deployed in altitudes up to 6,400 metres (21,000 ft).

Cause of conflict

The Siachen Glacier became a bone of contention following a vague demarcation of territory as per the Simla Agreement of 1972, which did not exactly specify who had authority over the Siachen Glacier area. Indian interpretation was that Pakistan territory is until Saltoro ridge. Pakistan interpretation was their territory is until Karakoram pass. As a result of this misinterpretation, both nations claimed the barren heights. In the 1970s and early 80s, Pakistan permitted several mountaineering expeditions to climb the peaks in the Siachen region from the Pakistani side, in an attempt to reinforce their claim on the area as these expeditions received permits obtained from the Government of Pakistan and in many cases a liaison officer from the Pakistan army accompanied the teams. In 1978, the Indian Army also allowed mountaineering expeditions to the glacier, approaching from its side. The most notable one was the one launched by Colonel Narinder "Bull" Kumar of the Indian Army, who led the expedition to Teram Kangri. The Indian Air Force provided valuable support to this expedition in 1978 through logistic support and supply of fresh rations. The first air landing on the Glacier was carried out on 6 October 1978 when two casualties were evacuated from the Advance Base Camp in a Chetak helicopter by Sqn Ldr Monga and Flying Officer Manmohan Bahadur. Contention over the glacier was aggravated by these expeditions, through both sides asserting their claims.

Notably, when Pakistan gave permission to a Japanese expedition to scale an important peak (Rimo I) in 1984, it further fueled the suspicion of the Indian Government of Pakistani attempts to legitimize their claim. The peak, located east of the Siachen Glacier, also overlooks the northwestern areas of the Aksai Chin area which is occupied by China but claimed by India. The Indian military believed that such an expedition could further a link for a trade route from the southwestern (Chinese) to the northeastern (Pakistani) side of the Karakoram Range and eventually provide a strategic, if not tactical, advantage to the Pakistani Armed Forces.

The operation

In 1983, Pakistani generals decided to stake their claim through troop deployments to the Siachen glacier. After analysing the Indian Army's mountaineering expeditions, they feared that India might capture key ridges and passes near the glacier, and decided to send their own troops first. Islamabad ordered Arctic-weather gear from a supplier from London, unaware that the same supplier provided outfits to the Indians. The Indians were informed about this development and initiated their own plan, providing them with a head start.

Having received intelligence inputs about planned Pakistani action in the area, India decided to prevent Pakistan from legitimizing its claim on the glacier and eventually stop future expeditions to the glacier from the Pakistani side. Accordingly, the Indian military decided to deploy troops from Northern Ladakh region as well as some paramilitary forces to the glacier area. Most of the troops had been acclimatized to the extremities of the glacier through a training expedition to Antarctica in 1982.

The Indian Army planned an operation to occupy the glacier by 13 April 1984, to preempt the Pakistani Army by about 4 days, as intelligence had reported that the Pakistani operation planned to occupy the glacier by 17 April.

Operation Meghdoot 392

Named for the divine cloud messenger, Meghaduta, from the 4th century AD Sanskrit play by Kalidasa, "Operation Meghdoot" was led by Lieutenant General Prem Nath Hoon, the then General Officer Commanding-in-Chief (GOC-in-C) of the Indian Army's Northern Command based at Udhampur in Jammu & Kashmir.

Preparations for Operation Meghdoot started with the airlift of Indian Army soldiers by the Indian Air Force (IAF). The IAF used II-76, An-12 and An-32 to transport stores and troops as well to airdrop supplies to high altitude airfields. From there Mi-17, Mi-8 and HAL Chetak helicopters carried provisions and personnel to the east of the hitherto unscaled peaks.

The first phase of the operation began in March 1984 with the march on foot to the eastern base of the glacier. A full battalion of the Kumaon Regiment and units from the Ladakh Scouts, marched with full battle packs through an ice-bound Zoji La pass for days. ^[4] The units under the command of Lieutenant Colonel (later Brigadier) D. K. Khanna were moved on foot to avoid detection of large troop movements by Pakistani radars.

The first unit to establish postition on the heights of the glacier was led by Major (later Lieutenant Colonel) R. S. Sandhu. The next unit led by Captain Sanjay Kulkarni secured Bilafond La. The remaining forward deployment units then marched and climbed for four days under the command of Captain P. V. Yadav to secure the remaining heights of the Saltoro Ridge. By April 13, approximately 300 Indian troops were dug into the critical peaks and passes of the glacier. By the time Pakistan troops managed to get into the immediate area, they found that the Indian troops had occupied all 3 major mountain passes of Sia La, Gyong La and Bilafond La and all the commanding heights of the Saltoro Ridge west of Siachen Glacier. Handicapped by the altitude and the limited time, Pakistan could only manage to control the Saltoro Ridge's western slopes and foothills despite the fact that Pakistan possessed more ground accessible routes to the area, unlike Indian access which was largely reliant on air drops for supplies due to the steeper eastern side of the glacier. [2]

In his memoirs, former Pakistani president, General Pervez Musharraf states that Pakistan lost almost 900 sq mi (**unknown operator: u'strong'** km²) of territory.^[5] Time magazine states that the Indian advance captured nearly 1000 sq mi (**unknown operator: u'strong'** km²) of territory claimed by Pakistan.^[6] Camps were soon converted to permanent posts by both countries. The number of casualties on both sides during this particular operation is not known.

Aftermath

There are divergent views on the strategic value of the Operation. Some view it as a futile capture of non-strategic land which antagonized relations between India and Pakistan. Others consider the operation to be a "daring" success by the Indian Military and ensured that the Indian military held tactical high ground on the strategic Saltoro Ridge just west of the glacier, albeit at a high cost. The Indian Army currently controls all of the 70 kilometres (**unknown operator: u'strong'** mi) long Siachen Glacier and all of its tributary glaciers, as well as the three main passes of the Saltoro Ridge immediately west of the glacier, Sia La, Bilafond La, and Gyong La, thus holding onto the tactical advantage of high ground. [7][8]

The operation and the continued cost of maintaining logistics to the area is a major drain on both militaries. Pakistan launched an all out assault in 1987 and again in 1989 to capture the ridge and passes held by India. The first assault was headed by then-Brigadier-General Pervez Musharraf (later President of Pakistan) and initially managed to capture a few high points before being beaten back. Later the same year, Pakistan lost at least one major Pakistani post, the "Quaid", which came under Indian control as Bana Post, in recognition of Subedar Major Bana Singh who launched a daring daylight attack, codenamed "Operation Rajiv", after climbing 1500 ft (unknown operator: u'strong' m) of ice cliff. Naib Subedar Bana Singh was awarded the Param Vir Chakra (PVC) — the highest gallantry award of India for the assault that captured the post. Bana Post is the highest battlefield post in the world today at a height of 22143 feet (unknown operator: u'strong' m) above sea level. [9][10] The second assault in 1989 was also unsuccessful as the ground positions did not change. The loss of most of the Siachen area and the subsequent unsuccessful military forays prompted Benazir Bhutto to taunt Zia ul Haq that he should wear a burqa as

Operation Meghdoot 393

he had lost his manliness.^[11]

Operation Meghdoot was seen by some as the blueprint behind the Kargil War in 1999 when Pakistan backed terrorists and paramilitary forces covertly occupied the Kargil region. Some obvious similarities exist between Siachen and Kargil, including their preemptive nature and the tactical advantage held by the entity who holds the heights. But while Operation Meghdoot was launched in an area of ambiguous border demarcation, the Line of Control in the Kargil region is clearly demarcated and therefore India received complete international support during the Kargil episode.

Casualties

No reliable data available. However, both sides have taken most of their casualties from the weather and the terrain. A large number of soldiers from both sides have suffered frostbite and high altitude sickness, or been lost to avalanches or crevasses during patrols.

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External links

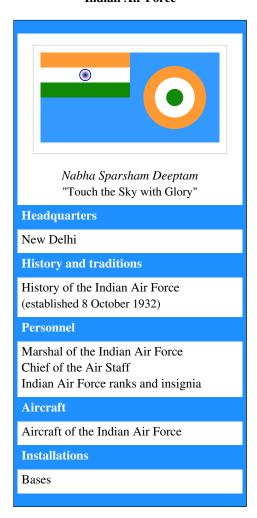
 The buildup to Operation Meghdoot by Wing Commander M. Bahadur (http://www.bharat-rakshak.com/IAF/ History/1990s/Siachen01.html) Operation Safed Sagar 394

Operation Safed Sagar

Operation Safed Sagar was the codename assigned to the Indian Air Force's strike to support the Ground troops during Operation Vijay that was aimed to flush out Regular and Irregular troops of the Pakistani Army from vacated Indian Positions in the Kargil sector along the Line of Control. It was the first large scale use of air power in the Jammu and Kashmir region since the Indo-Pakistani War of 1971.

Ground operations





Initial infiltrations were noticed in Kargil in early May, 1999. Because of the extreme winter weather in Kashmir, it was common practice for the Indian and Pakistan Army to abandon forward posts and reoccupy them in the spring. That particular spring, the Pakistan Army reoccupied the forward posts before the scheduled time not only theirs but also which belonged to India, in a bid to capture Kashmir.

By the second week of May, an ambush on an Indian army patrol acting on a tip-off by a local shepherd in the Batalik sector led to the exposure of the infiltration. Initially with little knowledge of the nature or extent of the encroachment, the Indian troops in the area initially claimed that they would evict them within a few days. However, soon reports of infiltration elsewhere along the LoC made it clear that the entire plan of attack was on a much bigger scale. India responded with Operation Vijay, a mobilisation of 200,000 Indian troops. However, because of the nature of the terrain, division and corps operations could not be mounted; the scale of most fighting was at the regimental or battalion level. In effect, two divisions of the Indian Army, [1] numbering 20,000, along with several

Operation Safed Sagar 395

thousand from the Paramilitary forces of India and the air force were deployed in the conflict zone. the Indian Army moved into the region in full force. Soon, the intruders were found to be well entrenched and while artillery attacks had produced results in certain areas, more remote ones needed the help of the air force.

Air operations

The Indian Air Force (IAF) was first approached to provide air support on 11 May with the use of helicopters. On 21 May a Canberra on a reconnaissance mission, flown by Sqn Ldr A Perumal and Sqn Ldr UK Jha, was hit by ground fire. The flight was however, recovered safely, and returned to base on one engine. On 25 May, the Cabinet Committee on Security authorized the IAF to mount attacks on the infiltrators without crossing the LoC. Initial indications from the government to the IAF was to operate only Attack helicopters. However, the Chief of Air Staff put forth the argument that in order to create a suitable environment for the helicopters, fighter action was required. On 26 May, the go-ahead was given and the IAF started its strike role. Flying from the Indian airfields of Srinagar, Avantipur and Adampur, ground attack aircraft MiG-21s, MiG-23s, MiG-27s, Jaguars and the Mirage 2000 struck insurgent positions. Of note, although the MiG-21 is built mainly for air interception with a secondary role of ground attack, it is capable of operating in restricted spaces which was of importance in the Kargil terrain.

The first strikes were launched on the 26 May, when the Indian Air Force struck infiltrator positions with fighter aircraft and helicopter gunships. ^[2] The initial strikes saw MiG-27s carrying out offensive sorties, with MiG-21s and (later) MiG-29s providing fighter cover. Mi-17 gunships were also deployed in the Tololing sector. ^[3] Srinagar Airport was at this time closed to civilian air-traffic and dedicated to the Indian Air Force. ^[2]

However, on 27 May, the first fatalities were suffered when a MiG-21 and a MiG-27 jets were lost over Batalik Sector to enemy action and mechanical failure, respectively. [4][5] The following day, a Mi-17 was lost- with the loss of all four of the crew- when it was hit by three stingers while on an offensive sortie. [3] These losses forced the Indian Air Force to reassess its strategy. The helicopters were immediately withdrawn from offensive roles as a measure against the man-portable missiles in possession of the infiltrators.

On 30 May, the Indian Air Force called into operation the Mirage 2000 which was deemed the best aircraft capable of optimum performance under the conditions of high-altitude seen in the zone of conflict. Armed initially with 250 kg "dumb" bombs, No.7 Squadron over three days, struck infiltrator positions in Muntho Dhalo, Tiger Hill and Point 4388 in the Drass Sector. The strikes on Muntho Dhalo on 17 June also destroyed logistics and re-supply capabilities of the infiltrators in the Batalik Sector. [3] Through the last weeks of June, the Mirages, armed with LGBs as well as with "dumbs", repeatedly struck the heavily defended Tiger Hill. The first of these missions were observed by the (then) Chief of Air Staff, ACM AY Tipnis [3]

The choppers used were Mi-8 and the Mi-17. The transport planes were Avro, An-32 and IL-76. On May 27, the IAF had sent a MiG-27 on a photo reconnaissance mission over the Indian side of the Line of Control in Kashmir. Piloted by Flt Lt K Nachiketa, he ejected from his MiG-27 after an engine flameout. Squadron Leader Ajay Ahuja, who was in his MiG-21 tried to trace the downed MiG despite a blatant threat in the form of enemy Anti-Aircraft Guns. Within minutes his plane was shot at by a Stinger shoulder fired missile. Having crashed, it is believed by the Indian military that he survived the crash but was killed by Pakistan Army soldiers or irregulars. The body of Ahuja bore two point-blank bullet wounds as per the postmortem done by the Indian authorities. The point-blank injuries clearly indicate the intent of the enemy and a treatment in violation of Geneva conventions. Flt Lt Nachiketa was later paraded on Pakistan TV, this prompted India to accuse Pakistan of violating the Geneva convention on the treatment of Prisoners of War.

The next day the air force lost an Mi-17 Helicopter to a shoulder fired missile near Tololing, killing the crew of four. This resulted in a change in strategy and technology. With the Israelis providing around 100 Laser-guided bomb kits to the Indian Military, the air force chose to make maximum use of this and retaliated with regular sorties on Pakistani occupied bunkers. The aircraft operated at 10,000 meters AGL (33,000 feet above sea level), well out of MANPADs range, leading to a drop in the accuracy rate of the bombs. The low number of airstrips for take off and

Operation Safed Sagar 396

landing of the flights also constrained the efficiency of the attacks. Despite this, there were hundreds of sorties on the intruders with no further material or personnel casualties enabling a gradual takeover of the mountain posts by Indian troops. According to IAF the "air strikes against the Pakistani infiltrators, supply camps and other targets yielded rich dividends."

By July all the remaining intruders had withdrawn and the operation was ended, being declared a success by the IAF in having achieved its primary objectives. However there has also been criticism of the methods initially used and the type of planes being unsuitable to the terrain that resulted in early losses. [6] This is believed by many in the air force as coming as a wake up call to upgrade the aging fleet of craft (especially the attack aircraft and helicopters) to better enable them to fight in the mountainous region. But, in the context of the war and in light of the poor information available on the infiltrations, the Indian Air Force was able to coordinate well with the Army and provide air support to the recapture of most the posts before Pakistan decided to withdraw its remaining troops.

Aftermath

The lessons learned in this limited war influenced India to urgently upgrade its combat fleet. It acquired and later started co-developing Sukhoi Su-30MKI heavy fighters with Russia beginning in the early 2000s. The process of acquiring 126 Medium Multi-role Combat Aircraft was also initiated in 2001, India's largest military tender to date. Dassault Rafale was declared the winner in January 2012.

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Battle of Phillora 397

Battle of Phillora

The **Battle of Phillora** was one of the largest tank battles fought during the Indo-Pakistani War of 1965. It was the first major engagement between the two nations in the Sialkot sector and coincided with the Battle of Asal Uttar.

Battle

The battle started on 10 September, when Indian troops launched a massive attack at the Phillora sector. Its 1st Armoured Division was on the offensive in that area. Equipped with four armoured regiments, this division faced stiff opposition from the Pakistani 6th Armoured Division. The initial Indian drives were pushed back towards Gadgor for a loss of 15 tanks. [1] Pakistani air attacks did little damage to the tank columns and more to lorry and infantry columns. For the next two days intense fighting continued and the outnumbered Pakistani troops made a tactical retreat towards Chawinda. At this point India claimed to destroyed 67 Pakistani tanks. However, military historian Steve Zaloga regarded the Indian claim as "ludicrous". [1]

According to ex Pakistan Army Major(retd.) and Military historian A.H Amin summed up the failure of the Pakistani armour at the battle of Phillora "....6 Armoured Division ordered Guides(10th) Cavalry and 14 FF to mount an attack from Bhagowal-Bhureshah area against the right flank of the Indians aimed at area Libbe-Chahr at 1130 hours on 11th September. The aim of this attack was to relieve pressure on 11 Cavalry. This Guides had a severe firefight with 16 Light Cavalry losing many tanks as well as destroying some enemy tanks but was unable to make any impression and the main Indian attack against 11 Cavalry holding Phillora proceeded smoothly .Phillora was captured by the Indians on 1530 hours on 11th September. 11 Cavalry fought well and lost so many tanks that from 11th September onwards it ceased to function as a complete tank regiment". Howerver Major Amin also criticized India for its strategic miscalculation "The Indians fought well but in the overall strategic context capture of Phillora was of little consequence.Had the Indians shown similar resolution and a little more coup d oeil and modified their plans at the brigade and divisional level on 8 September, by 11 September they would have been leisurely holding the east bank of MRL. [2]

Pakistani Official History of the 6th Armoured Division "Men of Steel" that states that 35 tanks were left in Indian control (17 M48, 9 M47, 9 M36B2) but that nine of these were recovered after the war when Indian troops vacated the area held by then.^[3]

Conclusion

On September 12, 1965, the tank battle at Phillora ended in an important decisive victory for the Indian Army with the Pakistani forces retreating and regrouping to put up a last stand at Chawinda. [15][1] A day before, the Indian Army had experienced another victory at Asal Uttar when they successfully thwarted Pakistani offensive in the Khem Karan sector. The continued thrust by the Indian Army into Pakistani territory finally culminated in the Battle of Chawinda, where Indian army's advance was successfully halted. On 22 September with the signing of ceasefire, all the offensives were ceased on that front. On 22 September the United Nations Security Council unanimously passed a resolution that called for an unconditional ceasefire from both nations. The war ended the following day. India Still retained almost 200 square miles (518 square kilometres) of Pakistan territory in the Sialkot sector including the villages of Phillora, Pagowal, Maharajke, Gadgor, Bajagrahi etc. which was returned to Pakistan after the Tashket Declaration.

Battle of Phillora 398

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Tangail Airdrop

The Tangail Airdrop was an airborne operation mounted on 11 December 1971 by the 2nd Parachute Battalion Group of the Indian Army during the Indo-Pakistani War of 1971. The main objective of the operation was the capture of Poongli Bridge on the Jamuna which would cut off the 93 Brigade of Pakistani Army which was retreating from the north to defend Dacca and its approaches. The Paratroop unit was also tasked to link up with the advancing Maratha Light Infantry on the ground to advance towards the East Pakistani capital.

Objectives

The Paratroopers, numbering 700 and led by Lt Col Kulwant Singh Pannu was reinforced by an Artillery battery, an Engineering detachment, an ADS, and a surgical team and other administrative troops from 50th (Indep) Parachute Brigade. Tasked to cut off the retreat of the Pakistani troops from the north towards Dacca, the unit touched ground at 4:30pm and were greeted by a jubilant crowd of local Bengali populace, with some even helping the troops carry their packs and ammunition. The drop was dispersed over a wide area, but the Paras regrouped quickly and commenced their attack. By 7.00pm they had captured their main objective, cutting off the Pakistani 93 Brigade retreating from the north. Link-up with 1 Maratha LI was established after the Marathas broke through at Tangail Road and reached the bridgehead that very evening. The Pakistanis, attempting to retake the bridge rushed the Indian positions that evening, however, were repulsed.

The Tangail Airdrop operation involved An-12, C-119s, 2 Caribous and Dakotas from 11 sqn and 48 Sqn. The IAF also carried out feint drops using dummies dropped from Caribou aircraft to hide the true location and extent of the operation. The only hitch was a Hangup from the lead Dakota. One Paratrooper had a static line hangup, who, after carrying out emergency procedures, was dropped safely about 50 miles away.

Aftermath

The Tangail Airdrop and the subsequent capture of the Poongli bridge over Jamuna by 2nd Para Bn Gp gave the advancing Indian Army the maneouverability to side step the strongly held Tongi-Dacca Road to take the undefended Manikganj-Dacca Road right up to Mirpur Bridge at the gates of Dacca.

Battle Awards

• Lt Col Kulwant Singh was awarded the MVC for his leadership in battle.

Battle of Tololing 399

Battle of Tololing

The Battle of Tololing was one of the pivotal battles in the Kargil War between India's armed forces and troops from the Northern Light Infantry who were aided by other Pakistan backed irregulars in 1999. The Tololing is a dominant position overlooking the Srinagar - Leh Highway (NH 1D) and was a vital link. The Indian army's casualties on the Tololoing peak were half of the entire losses in the whole war. Much of the losses had to do with the nature of the terrain as World War I style frontal charges had to be mounted to reclaim the peaks to dislodge the intruders. The 3 week assault finally culminated with India taking control of the peak and changing the course of the war. 23 Indian Soldiers were killed in the final assault, resulting in one of the costliest battles of the entire war.

Major Rajesh Adhikari (posthumously) and Digendra Kumar were awarded the Maha Vir Chakra, India's second highest military honour for their daring actions on the peak.

External links

• Bharat Rakshak [1]

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